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THE RALEIGH HISTORY READERS



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THE GROWTH OF GREATER BRITAIN

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THE RALEIGH HISTORY READERS

The Growth of Greater Britain

A Sketch of the History of the
British Colonies and Dependencies

BY

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THE GROWTH OF GREATER BRITAIN.

PERIOD OF PREPARATION.

I.—THE DISCOVERY OF THE NEW WORLD (1492-1493).

At the end of the fifteenth century European traders were very anxious to find a sea-route to India. The Portuguese had made some attempts to reach it by doubling the south point of Africa, but without success. Then came a Genoese sailor, Christopher Columbus, who proposed to sail straight across the Atlantic, for it was then held that this ocean stretched unbroken from Europe to Asia. Nobody would listen to him. Men did not care to venture far into the open sea, and to endeavour to cross the Atlantic, the Sea of Darkness, seemed to them stark folly. Only after years of waiting did Columbus persuade Queen Isabella of Castile to aid him in fitting out three small ships. With these he left Spain on the 3rd of August, 1492.

No one expected to see him return, and many of his sailors, when they saw the last of land, wept and wailed, and wished themselves at home again. For some time they sailed on with a fair wind behind, and nothing of note happened till one morning the ships entered a vast

sea of floating sea-weed. This was the gulf-weed, which, as we now know, covers an expanse of deep water six times as large as France. It was with awe and dread that the superstitious Spaniards passed through it day after day, and when the wind slackened they believed that their ships were going to linger and rot till they sank beneath the green and silent sea. At last clear water was reached, and, to the great joy of all, land was suddenly announced. But as they advanced the land melted away, and they found they had been deceived by a cloud. Soon the hopes of the wanderers were again raised, for large flights of land-birds were seen flying overhead, and their shrill notes and clarion calls were heard round the ships at night. But no land appeared.

The sailors now grew weary of constant waiting and watching; they longed to turn and go back. Columbus did his best to encourage them, but made it clear that he meant to go on. Their discontent soon changed into mutinous anger. They were making up their minds to throw Columbus overboard, and had already invented a story to explain this "accident" on their return to Spain, when one day most unmistakable signs of land were seen. A green rush and a branch with fresh berries on it floated past. A stick curiously carved was also picked up. In the evening Columbus himself saw a strange light moving far away in the darkness, and next morning the coast of a small island was seen. On this he landed, and unfurling the broad banner of Castile, he took possession of it in the name of Queen Isabella. His followers, who some days before had given themselves up for lost, were now wild with joy. Each man looked forward to his share of wealth and honour, and those who had wished to make Columbus food for fishes

repented of their lack of faith and curried favour. For him it was indeed a proud moment; after years of patient waiting he had achieved, in spite of adversity and derision, the great object of his life, and had won a noble place in the history of the world.

Meanwhile the natives, who had fled to the woods on



The Ships of Columbus sailing to America.

the first appearance of these pale-faced men all clad in shining steel, now approached, prostrating themselves and making signs of adoration. They thought, no doubt, that the Spaniards were celestial beings who had come borne in the great ocean-monsters with white wings out of the skies which encircled their seas. Columbus treated them kindly, and tried to find out what part of Asia he had reached. He noticed that they wore small ornaments of gold, and when he inquired where the gold came from, they pointed south. Columbus felt sure that

this land to the south must be Cipango (Japan), where the houses, so he had read, were roofed with shining gold.

Leaving behind him the newly-discovered island—probably our Watling Island, one of the Bahamas—he sailed south and reached Cuba. Here he found himself in a land the most beautiful “that eyes ever beheld”, green and sunny, covered with virgin forests, where birds of every hue sang, and where the air was perfumed with tropical flowers. The natives were gentle and courteous, simple and unclothed. They lived in houses neatly built of palm-tree branches, and at night they slept in nets named *hamacas*, which they slung between two trees. Both men and women were seen smoking what they called *tabacos*. At the time, the Spaniards little thought that in the years to come this weed would be bought and sold in every village of Europe. They could think of nothing but gold and spices, and, finding none, they sailed south-east to search anew for the golden domes of Cipango.

One day, when Columbus, worn out with work and watching, lay asleep, his ship ran on to a sandbank and was wrecked off the shores of Hayti. Fearing that worse might happen, he decided to leave some of his men behind and sail at once for Spain. In March, 1493, after an absence of more than seven months, he arrived, and great was his triumph. Honours were showered upon him, he was created Admiral of the Ocean Sea and Viceroy of the Western Indies. This name was given to the islands he had discovered, because it was believed that they fringed the coast of Asia. Columbus himself died before it was realized that he had found the borders of a new continent.

II.—THE RISE OF ENGLISH SEA POWER.

(1) THE PROTESTANT ADVENTURERS

(1563-1584).

When Henry VIII. quarrelled with the Pope, he found himself at enmity with the Roman Catholic powers, of which Spain was the most formidable. Spain ruled the waves, and was founding a vast colonial empire in the new world discovered by Columbus at a time when the English seaman was scarcely heard of beyond his own shores. Fortunately for Henry, the King of Spain was too busy crushing his own Protestant subjects, the Dutch, and fighting the French, to care to engage in a great war with England. But Spanish privateers swarmed in the Channel, plundered and scuttled English traders, and even made dashes into English ports. Further, the Spanish Inquisition, a court for trying and punishing heretics, did not scruple to seize and burn English sailors on the slightest pretext. This put the English on their mettle, and they soon learnt to build vessels fast and strong enough to hold their own. The government secretly encouraged these reprisals, though as yet England was openly at peace with Spain. Neither country was ready for the supreme struggle.

When Elizabeth came to the throne, the feeling of hatred between the two countries had grown fiercer. In 1562 twenty-six English subjects had been burnt at the stake by the Inquisition. Ten times as many lay dying in Spanish dungeons. In the following year, Lord Cobham, to revenge the capture and death of some English sailors, seized a Spanish ship, rescued forty prisoners whom he found on board, then sewed up the captain and

crew in their own mainsail and flung them overboard. No mercy was shown on either side, and none was expected. Philip occasionally complained to Elizabeth of the misdeeds of the English adventurers, and she in turn protested against the atrocities committed by the Inquisition, but they did and could do nothing to mend matters.

Soon English ships began to find their way to the West Indies, where, from the time that Columbus had made his famous voyage, the Spaniards had had matters all their own way. John Hawkins, having heard that there was a good market for negro slaves, went to Africa, seized a number of negroes, and sold them in St. Domingo. There he bought a cargo of hides, and sent them to be sold in Spain. But the Inquisition, getting wind of the transaction, confiscated his goods. Philip, moreover, was very angry when he heard that an Englishman had been impudent enough to trade with and corrupt his colonial subjects. Hawkins was no less angry at having been robbed of his money, and determined to go out again and make good his losses. His voyage was most successful, and he returned home to share the profits with Elizabeth, who had secretly helped him to fit out his expedition.

Philip was furious; he cursed the name of "Achines", as he called it, and sent out a fleet to catch the audacious John on his next voyage. He nearly succeeded, for Hawkins was trapped by the Spanish fleet in a Mexican port, and attacked unawares. All his ships were sunk except two, and he only managed to reach England with great difficulty. This put an end to Hawkins's slave-trade, a very dishonourable trade we should call it nowadays, but in those days no one thought it wrong, and Hawkins must be judged by the standard of his own

time. As it was, he had shown his countrymen the way to the Spanish colonies, and he lived to do still more notable service. But now we must turn to one who was the greatest seaman of the sixteenth century.

Hawkins had been accompanied on his last journey by a young kinsman named Francis Drake, a Devonshire man like himself, Oxenham, and many others who sailed their ships to the Spanish Main. Drake determined to make the Spaniards pay for the losses he had sustained. In 1572 he sailed to Nombre de Dios, and landing, captured the Spanish treasure convoy which was crossing the Isthmus of Panama on its way from Peru. The booty was so immense that the silver had to be left behind, but the gold and precious stones the adventurers carried to their ships, and thus home. This was a good beginning, but Drake determined to do better. While in the Isthmus he had seen the great Pacific stretching far away to the west, and into this ocean he determined to go.

Five years later he started, and, steering south, sailed through the Straits of Magellan. There his ships encountered a furious gale; one went down, and the second returned to England. Drake, in the third and last, the *Pelican*, made his way north up the coast of Chili. At Valparaiso he seized a galleon, out of which he took four hundred pounds weight of gold. At Tarapaca silver bars lay piled on the quay, and a Spaniard slept beside them; for here, as elsewhere along the coast, the subjects of Philip never dreamed of being visited by the English. They "took the silver and left the man". On arriving at Lima, Drake found that a treasure-ship had already started for Panama, and he sailed hotly in pursuit.

The Spanish Governor of Lima sent two war-ships after him, but they thought better of it and returned,

leaving Drake to capture the treasure-ship, and rifle it of eighty pounds weight of gold and twenty-six tons of silver, besides jewels and plate. After landing to repair the *Pelican*, he started west across the Pacific. On the way three Spanish war-ships overtook him, but concluding discreetly that he was the Evil One in person, they again turned back. Drake sailed on, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and reached England after having completed a marvellous voyage round the world. He was welcomed by the whole nation; but Philip, angrier than ever, demanded compensation. Elizabeth said she would think about it, and continued to think about it till the defeat of the Armada settled the matter once and for all.

III.—THE RISE OF ENGLISH SEA POWER.

(2) DEFEAT OF THE ARMADA (1588).

In 1585 Sir Francis Drake and other adventurers set sail, and paid a visit to Vigo in Spain. The governor of this place was so amazed that he could think of nothing better than to treat them to wine and fruit. They accepted his hospitality, and, after scaring the townsfolk, steered to the West Indies, stormed and put to ransom St. Domingo and Carthagena, the two finest cities in the Spanish colonies, and then returned home, satisfied with having shown the world that Spain was no longer invincible.

King Philip thought otherwise, and at last determined to bring England to her knees. A religious crusade was preached. Volunteers flocked from all the Catholic

countries to serve against the Protestant queen. Every dockyard in Spain was busy fitting out the great fleet which was to protect the Spanish troops as they passed from Holland to invade England. These immense preparations could not be kept secret, and one morning the inhabitants of Cadiz saw Drake sail into their harbour. The adventurers had been sent to see what was going on,



Hawkins.

Drake.

Frobisher.

English Sea Captains—Elizabethan Period.

and they stayed long enough to burn about thirty ships, with but trifling loss to themselves. On the way back they fell in with a Spanish vessel laden with gold. They seized it to pay their expenses, courteously sent the crew back to Spain, and arrived in England "with their whole fleet and this rich booty, to their own profit and to the admiration of the whole kingdom".

This exploit delayed the sailing of the Armada for a year, but in 1588 it left the Tagus. It was obliged to return, for it was found that the water supplied to the ships was

foul, and the provisions not fit to eat. In July the great fleet again started, sailed into the English Channel, and arrived off the Eddystone. In the hour of need England had to depend upon her adventurers, and they responded nobly to the call. From every harbour along the shore came the seamen who had spread terror throughout the Spanish Main. The Queen sent about eleven ships under Lord Howard. These united with about forty ships of the adventurers to make a dash at the Armada.

The first contest showed the Spaniards that the English had already surpassed them in seamanship and ship-building. The little English vessels sailed twice as fast as the great galleons, and their guns shot twice as far as those of the Spaniards. The Duke of Medina Sidonia, upon whom Philip had forced the command of the Armada, knew nothing of the sea, and was naturally in great perplexity. He finally ordered the fleet to sail on up Channel. The next day, and the day after, the English vessels, in larger numbers and bolder than ever, poured shot and shell into his great hulks. The Spanish sailors fought bravely, and did what they could for the honour of their country and great name; but their leader was an incompetent land-lubber, and they were outmatched both in ships and guns.

After these rude experiences the Duke was only too glad to bring his fleet to anchor in the Calais roads. In French waters he thought he would be safe, and there also he would be in touch with Parma, whose army was preparing to cross over to England. But he was doomed to disappointment. Parma said he would not be ready to start for a fortnight, and that in the meanwhile the Duke must expect no help from him. On the other hand, the English, who were getting short of provisions, felt

that there was no time to lose. They dared not attack the Spanish fleet in French waters, so they determined to force it into the open sea and fall on it again. In the night, therefore, fire-ships were sent drifting towards the Armada. The Duke lost his head, made no attempt to tow the blazing vessels out of the way, but gave orders to the fleet to set sail and make for the open sea, thus doing precisely what the English desired.

The next morning found the Spanish fleet in two divisions—one drifting on to a dangerous shore, the other, under the command of the Duke, lying at anchor. On this latter Drake and his men swooped like vultures. Their little ships sailed round the galleons, pouring in volley after volley with terrible effect. They themselves suffered little, as the enemies' shots passed over their heads. The Spaniards again fought bravely, and refused to yield, though the decks of their ships ran red with the blood of their dead. The battle only ended when the supply of powder on both sides gave out. But the English needed no more powder. The Spaniards had at last had enough of it; they sailed north, and were pursued round the coast of Scotland by storms and fogs and famine. The shattered remnants of the great Armada crept back to Spain, and only a few thousands of the 30,000 men who stepped on board survived the effects of the voyage, and the disgrace of this crushing defeat, which marked the end of Spanish supremacy on the sea.

IV.—CABOT AND CHANCELER (1497 AND 1551).

While in the southern seas the English adventurers were sacking the towns and chasing the galleons of his majesty the King of Spain, many of their compatriots were engaged in the more peaceful work of exploring the lands that lay in the northern seas to the east and west of England. If Spain and Portugal were going to reach the Indies by sailing round Africa and America, there seemed to be no reason why the English should not arrive at the same goal by sailing round the north of Asia and North America. Several made the attempt, and though they did not succeed, yet they discovered new and strange lands, learned by bitter experience much that was necessary for the making of strong ships and good sailors, roused in their countrymen the spirit of commerce and the love of adventure, and showed them the way to the great northern continent of America, which is now the home of millions of our race.

The honour of having discovered North America belongs, not to an Englishman, but to John Cabot, who, like Columbus, was born in or near Genoa. He made Bristol his home, and hearing of the great discovery of his countryman, he and his son, Sebastian, determined "to do also something famous". Therefore, in 1497 they set sail, hoping to reach India by sailing west from Bristol. Unfortunately, we know little either of this or a second voyage undertaken by them in the following year, but it is certain that they discovered a great part of the west coast of what we now know as Canada and the United States. It is highly probable that the Norse-

men had already discovered the coasts of Labrador and Nova Scotia as early as the eleventh century, but at the time of which we are writing no one knew of these early Viking voyages. It remained for Cabot to find for us the way to the lands we were to conquer and keep.

In 1551 the "Company of the Merchant Adventurers for the Discovery of Regions, Dominions, Islands, and Places Unknown", was formed at the suggestion of Sebastian Cabot, with the object of seeking a road to India round the north coast of Asia. Cabot himself was too old to command the expedition in person, but he brought his great experience to bear upon the fitting-out of the ships. For the first time in England the keels were covered with thin sheets of lead, "for", says the chronicler, "they had heard that in certain parts of the ocean a kind of worm is bred which many times pierceth and eateth through the strongest oak that is". Sir Hugh Willoughby, knight, was appointed admiral of the small fleet, and Richard Chancellor was his pilot-major. After they had sighted Norway a terrible storm arose, and the ships were separated. One returned home, but Willoughby's ship never came back. It was found next year by some Russian fishermen embedded in ice. On board, the crew lay cold and dead, and in the cabin sat the brave Willoughby, frozen to his chair. On the table the log was found, but its record had ended abruptly. The Arctic frost had suddenly seized the captain and his crew in its icy grip, and sent them to sleep for ever.

Chancellor was more fortunate. Tired of waiting for Willoughby, he sailed on in the remaining ship till he entered a great bay, "the White Sea". Here, says the chronicler who wrote an account of this voyage, they saw a few fishermen, who, "being amazed at the strange

greatness of the ship, began presently to flee. Chancellor overtook them, and they prostrated themselves, offering to kiss his feet, but he looked pleasantly upon them, comforting them by signs and gestures, and taking them up in all loving sort from the ground." His kindness met its reward. The natives treated him hospitably, informed him that he was in Muscovy (Russia), and sent a messenger to the Czar, Ivan, to inform him of the coming of the English.

Ivan invited Chancellor to visit him in Moscow, and there Chancellor and his men were royally treated. They sat down to table with the czar and his court, and ate off plates of pure gold. This welcome had practical results; it paved the way for the establishment of a flourishing trade between Russia and England. Chancellor, delighted with his success, brought back the good news to England. He was empowered to return and make a formal commercial treaty with the czar. This he did; but on the home voyage his ship foundered on the coast of Scotland, and another brave seaman perished in the service of the British flag.

V.—FROBISHER AND DAVIS (1576-1605).

In 1576 Martin Frobisher set sail with intent to reach India by a passage round the north of America. He arrived at the south of Baffin Land and entered the bay which is named after him. So little did, or could, he know where he was, that he thought he had entered a strait, and that Asia lay to his right and America to his left. Here he met with a few Esquimaux, who managed to seize, and probably murder, some of his men; they

were never seen again. Frobisher returned home without discovering a north-west passage, and took back rock which was supposed to contain gold. People in England were only too ready to believe that he had found a gold-mine, and sent him to get a cargo of the precious ore.

On his second voyage he again came into collision with the natives, who fired arrows at his men. The latter got the best of it, and wounded a few natives, who, to avoid being taken, jumped into the sea and were drowned. A girl with a baby was captured, and also an old woman, who was so hideous that the superstitious sailors thought she must be a witch, and pulled off her buskins to see if she had cloven feet. Finding she had not, they let her go, but the girl they took to England. Another day a native was seen limping along the shore as if lame. His friends helped him to struggle on, and laid him down at the water's edge. But Frobisher, says the chronicler, "having compassion on his impotency, thought good, if it were possible, to cure him thereof, wherefore he caused a soldier to shoot at him, and the counterfeit villain deliberately fled" to his fellows, who were lurking about in the rocks ready to pounce on the sailors, in case they should be simple enough to believe in the little game of the "counterfeit villain".

On his return Frobisher received a great welcome, and his load of gold-ore was locked up safely in the Tower. But it was soon found that the gold, if gold at all, was of very inferior quality. Still, people were unwilling to believe that better could not be found, so they sent Frobisher out for more. This time he had a terrible voyage. After passing isles of floating ice, which rose from the sea like mountains, his fleet was enveloped in a thick fog, and the ships separated. Shortly afterwards

a great storm arose and brought with it the ice, which ground and battered the sides of the ships all the night through, sinking one and doing great damage to the rest.

Frobisher and his men looked for instant death, but happily they escaped, and struggled on bravely through fogs and storms to their destination. They shipped a great load of ore, and returned home only to find that they had performed Herculean labours in vain. The ore proved worthless, and for some time poor Frobisher was in disgrace. Later, however, we find him serving under Drake's flag, and he was knighted when the great fight with the Armada took place. Then and afterwards he did brave work, and it was in fighting for his country against the Spaniards that he received the wound which caused his death.

Yet another of the great seamen of this time, who taught the English how to rule the waves, was John Davis. He set forth to seek the North-West Passage, and rounding the south of Greenland sailed into Cumberland Sound. He, like Frobisher before him, imagined that he was in a strait which led into the Pacific, but he did not go far enough to find out his mistake. When he landed, he became aware of the presence of natives by hearing "a lamentable noise, with great outcries and screechings". His men hallooed back, and when the natives drew near the sailors danced before them and endeavoured to charm these savage breasts with music. What the natives thought of the music and dancing we know not, but they appreciated a few presents of gloves and stockings, and both parties were soon on excellent terms.

On his second voyage Davis sailed up the strait which is named after him, and went forward till he was stopped by a thick wall of ice. It was so cold that the ropes and

sails were frozen, and the ship had to turn back. On this voyage Davis entered into friendly relations with the natives, but found them so "marvellous thievish" that he fired a few shots over their heads to keep them at a respectful distance. Next year he made another attempt to sail north through Davis Strait, and got as far as $72^{\circ} 12'$ latitude, but was again compelled to retreat before the ice.

No more attempts were made for a long time to find the North-West Passage. Davis made voyages in other directions, and finally met his death in a fray with the Japanese in the East Indies (1605).

VI.—SIR WALTER RALEIGH (1). 1552–1618.

Walter Raleigh, like Drake and Hawkins, was a Devonshire man. Learned and witty, bold and dashing, with a noble and expressive face, thick dark hair, and a tall well-built figure, which the magnificent dress of the period displayed to advantage, he was just the man to gain the favour of a queen like Elizabeth. She loved to have around her courtiers who had clever heads on broad shoulders. But it was only after an adventurous life, spent on the Continent and in Ireland, when he had reached his thirtieth year, that the long-sought opportunity of attracting the queen's attention presented itself. It is said that one day, as she stood hesitating to cross a muddy spot on the road, Raleigh sprang forward and spread his fine plush coat over the mud. Elizabeth passed daintily across, and Raleigh's fortune was made.

But there were disadvantages in being the favourite of

an exacting mistress like Elizabeth. Raleigh's adventurous spirit ill-fitted him for the life of a court; he wished to rival the fame of the Spanish and English captains, and, like them, discover new lands, and bring home ships laden with gold and silver and precious stones. He wanted to do greater things than this. To him is ascribed the credit of being the first Englishman to see that it was time for England to do more than send her sea-dogs into the Spanish Main to worry the subjects of King Philip, or into the frozen seas to wander through islands of floating ice in search of North-West Passages. He saw that it was time for Britain to give birth to a Greater Britain across the ocean.

Elizabeth was delighted to hear of his schemes, and was ready to help him with money, but refused to let him out of her sight. His business in life, as courtier, was to wait upon her majesty, who had her weaknesses, great though she was. Raleigh had to content himself with sending out various expeditions. In 1583 he aided his step-brother, Sir Humphry Gilbert, to fit out a fleet which was to land colonists at some suitable spot on the American coast between Capes Florida and Breton. Raleigh was vice-admiral, but he was not allowed to exercise his office. The fleet arrived at Newfoundland, and took possession of it in the name of Queen Elizabeth. This island is therefore the oldest of our colonies. Gilbert did not tarry long off its shores, for many of his men fell ill and had to be sent home. With three ships he steered south in search of sunnier climes.

On the way he met with furious gales, and his little fleet was tossed about for days by winds and waves. One struck on a bank and was lost, the other two were driven towards the Azores. Then one stormy morning



Sir Humphrey Gilbert hoists the English Flag on Newfoundland.

the men in the *Golden Hind* saw their consort, the *Squirrel*, a little 10-ton ship, plunging heavily amid the billows. In the stern of the doomed vessel sat Gilbert with a book in his hand, calmly awaiting the end. For him and the great sea-captains of his age death had no terrors; they had faced it too often to fear its approach. As the ships came within hailing distance, Gilbert bade those on board the *Golden Hind* to be of good courage for they were "as near to heaven by sea as by land". A few hours later the *Squirrel* plunged for the last time.

In 1585 Raleigh attempted to plant a colony in Virginia, so called after his Virgin Queen. The settlers fared badly; they were not in sufficient force to resist the attacks of the Indians, and many considered themselves too well-bred to do manual work. Moreover, vague rumours gathered from the Indians of the presence of gold in the interior led them off on wild-goose chases, from which they returned to find their plantations overgrown with weeds. A number returned home, and when fresh settlers arrived, those who had been left behind were nowhere to be seen. They had been visited by Drake on his way home after the sack of Carthagena, and, being heartily tired of colonial life, had accepted his offer of a passage to England.

The new-comers did not succeed any better; they found themselves faced by the prospect of starvation, and sent a ship home for supplies. When the ship came, no sign of the settlement was left but empty and ruined houses. Their late occupants had mysteriously vanished. They were probably slain or captured by Indians, for, many years afterwards, it was reported that a white woman, who must have been quite a child at the time of

the tragedy, lived among the neighbouring Indians as the squaw of one of their braves.

The dismal fate of these early settlers did not encourage others to make their homes in Virginia. Raleigh himself lost heavily by his colonization scheme. One noteworthy result of the expeditions was the introduction into Great Britain of potatoes and tobacco. Raleigh was the first inveterate smoker of rank, and he presented pipes with silver bowls to his fellow-courtiers.

Later on we find Raleigh in disgrace and in the Tower. Fortunately, his ships chanced to capture a Spanish prize worth £150,000. Elizabeth consented to appropriate the lion's share of the spoil, and Raleigh was released, but banished from the Court. He spent two or three years in country pursuits, in politics and literature, and frequented the society of Shakespeare, Ben Jonson, and other brilliant men of letters.

VII.—SIR WALTER RALEIGH (2).

Like many of his contemporaries, Raleigh was fascinated by the Spanish legend of Eldorado or Manoa, the imperial city of Guiana, a land far surpassing all others in its wealth of gold. So rich was it that the emperor and his courtiers were wont to have their bodies anointed with balsam and sprayed with gold-dust till they shone from head to foot like golden statues. The Spaniards had made several attempts to enter the country, but they had failed, and their cruelties had aroused against them the hatred of all the tribes that dwelt on the banks of the Orinoco and the Amazon.

Into this country Raleigh determined to go. Spain

had conquered the treasures of Mexico and Peru: why, he thought, should not England rival its prowess and fortune? To found a great empire and to possess the gold of Eldorado would be better than the capture of many a Spanish galleon. With the wealth thus gained



Sir Walter Raleigh.

England would be able to crush her rivals in Europe, and rule the world. Inspired by some such thoughts as these, and by the hope of gaining fame and fortune for himself, Raleigh collected money, men, and ships, and in 1595 set sail. When he reached Trinidad he found the Spaniards in possession of the island. They did not give him a very

cordial welcome, and secretly made preparations to attack his fleet. Raleigh, hearing of this, surprised and destroyed the garrison, for to have left behind him an enemy interested in the same enterprise as himself would "have savoured very much of the ass".

After finding a good anchorage for his ships, Raleigh entered one of the numerous mouths of the Orinoco and rowed up-stream in his boats. He and his men soon found themselves wandering in a labyrinth of rivers

amid islands bordered with gigantic trees which shut in the view on all sides. Here they might have lingered for months if a native pilot had not fallen into their hands. Under his guidance they struggled on day after day against the strong current; their provisions began to fail, and they grew weaker and thinner. It was with difficulty that Raleigh could prevail on his men to go farther. Fortunately the pilot knew of a village up a side-stream. Raleigh and some of his men took one of the boats and went in search of it. After long weary hours they reached the village, just when they were making up their minds for the twentieth time that the old pilot had deceived them and ought to be thrown overboard. They were welcomed and feasted, and, thus refreshed, departed down stream with a store of provisions for their comrades. Now in a happier mood, they were prepared to enjoy the beauties of the scenery around. Broad green plains dotted with groves stretched away from the river's bank, "and still as we rowed the deer came down feeding to the water-side, as if they had been used to a keeper's call".

Rowing on, the boats at length reached the main stream of the Orinoco, and some of the country round was explored. Raleigh was delighted with it. It was a fat land and fair, in which rivers wound through well-wooded valleys where birds of every hue sang "a thousand several tunes. Stately cranes and herons waded by the river's brim." "Every stone that we picked up promised gold or silver by its complexion." The tribes that dwelt on the banks received Raleigh with open arms when they understood that he was the foe of the Spaniards. They came miles to visit him and bring presents and provisions. He was revered

because he took care that his men should do the natives no offence. Here he heard more of Manoa, the city of gold; he heard also of strange men called the Ewaipanomas, who had eyes in their shoulders and mouths in their breasts. He never saw them, and did not feel certain of the existence either of these men or of the warrior-women, the Amazons, who dwelt by the great river to the south, and who were feared for their strength and their cruelty.

Raleigh was satisfied that the country contained gold, for his lieutenant, Keymis, had already been shown a rich mine in the neighbourhood. The natives were willing to take up arms and help him to march on Eldorado. There, they said, he would find as much gold as he wanted. For themselves, they had no desire for gold, but thirsted to be revenged on the people of Manoa, who had seized much of their territory and carried away their women as slaves. But he thought it would be rash to make the attempt at once with the small force of Englishmen at his disposal, and finally determined to sail home and come back next year. Leaving one of his men behind, and taking with him in return the son of a chieftain, he intrusted his boats to the swift current of the Orinoco, and reaching his ships, steered for England.

It was not till twenty years later that Raleigh again beheld the broad rolling streams of the Orinoco. When he returned home from the first voyage, his supporters were disappointed that he had not brought them a rich load of gold. His enemies, and they were many, scoffed at his narrative of the Ewaipanomas, Amazons, and all the other wonders he had heard of and seen. The queen was not disposed to send out an expedition to possess and colonize the land, so Raleigh had to content himself

with occasionally despatching ships to keep him in touch with the friendly tribes. In the meanwhile he distinguished himself in the attack on Cadiz in 1596, and again rose into court favour. But the death of his great mistress in 1603 brought about a sad change in his fortunes. Powerful and jealous rivals prejudiced King James against him. He was put on his trial for having conspired to set Arabella Stuart on the throne, and though his guilt was not proved, he was committed to the Tower, and for twelve years remained there a prisoner.

VIII.—SIR WALTER RALEIGH (3).

No reverses could wither the strong soul of Raleigh. He soon found work to do, and passed his time in scientific pursuits and in writing the first and only volume of his great *History of the World*. But he longed for freedom and an active life. He again urged his Guiana scheme on public attention, and at last, in 1616, the all-powerful favourite Villiers was bribed to influence the king on Raleigh's behalf. James yielded, and set the prisoner free on condition that he went and worked the gold-mine which had been shown to Keymis on the last voyage. The king was to receive one-fifth of all the treasure found.

The preparations for the voyage soon aroused the suspicions of Gondomar, the Spanish ambassador. The Spaniards chose to regard Guiana as their property, and they remembered also that Raleigh was the only one left of the great Elizabethan captains who had shown the world how weak Spain really was. They feared that his prowess might again make clear what the world was

beginning to forget. Gondomar therefore determined to compass Raleigh's destruction. This was not difficult, for James, the "wisest fool in Christendom", was but a child in the hands of the cunning Spaniard. The latter had already succeeded in impressing the English monarch with an exaggerated idea of the power of Spain, and negotiations were at the time being carried on with a view to marrying Prince Charles to a Spanish princess. James had set his heart upon the marriage, and, knowing this, Gondomar had only to play upon his fear of giving offence to the court of Madrid.

One morning the Spanish ambassador was ushered into the royal presence. He told James that he was convinced that Raleigh's object was not to work the mine but to plunder Spanish traders. The king declared that if Raleigh did anything of the sort he would send him to Madrid to be hung. Gondomar agreed that the punishment would fit the crime, but pointed out that the mischief would already have been done, and that he would not answer for the consequences. It was clear, moreover, he added, that if Raleigh's intentions were peaceful, he would not be taking with him so large a force. James, very much alarmed, assured him that he was making a mistake, and by way of proof, showed him a full written account of the details of the expedition, details he had sworn, "on the word of a king", to reveal to no man. This was the very information that Gondomar wanted; he took a careful copy and sent it post-haste to Madrid, with instructions to warn the Spaniards in Guiana to make all needful preparations. Raleigh was therefore doomed before he started.

He knew well enough that his life depended upon his success, but success was almost impossible. He arrived

at his destination worn out with fever, and quite unfit to lead his men up the Orinoco. Captain Keymis was given the command, and with him went Raleigh's son Walter. Orders were given to avoid if possible a conflict with the Spaniards. Raleigh, indeed, had very little confidence in his troops, who were for the most part, to use his own expression, "scum of men". The conflict with the Spaniards, of course, took place, and in the affray young Raleigh lost his life. The "scum of men" won the day, but they were subsequently so harassed by Spanish sharp-shooters that Keymis was forced to beat a retreat. Meanwhile Raleigh was brooding over the loss of his son. When Keymis arrived with empty hands, the stricken father overwhelmed him with bitter reproaches. Stung to the heart, Keymis went in silence to his cabin and stabbed himself. The expedition had failed, the crews were mutinous, and Raleigh went home to meet his fate.

His death was decided upon before the trial took place. This was not enough for Gondomar, who exacted from James a written promise to send Raleigh, if required, to be hung at Madrid. The Spanish monarch, who had sense enough to know that the English would never permit the king to keep his promise, graciously consented to allow the victim to be beheaded in England. When Raleigh was brought to trial, it was found that he could not legally be sentenced to death. In the first place, the mine was situated on soil that Raleigh himself had taken possession of in the name of Queen Elizabeth; and in the second place, it could not be proved that Keymis had struck the first blow. Where there is a will there is a way. The old charge upon which Raleigh had been sent to the Tower was raked up, and his judges,

whose servility to the king almost equalled the king's servility to Gondomar, considered this a sufficient pretext for sending the prisoner to the block.

Raleigh was executed on the 29th of October, 1618. He met his death cheerfully, and without one sign of fear. Nothing in history is sadder than the last years of his life. The genius and the power that might have been employed so well in the service of his country were wasted, and the head which had conceived the idea of a British empire beyond the seas was cut off at the bidding of the nation most hostile to England's expansion. Raleigh had his faults, like other men, but we readily forget them in our admiration of his gifts and ideals, and in our contempt for his persecutors.

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

IX.—THE FIRST PERMANENT SETTLEMENT.

The first permanent English settlement in America was begun in 1606 by a London company. The expedition seemed doomed to failure from the start. The people sent out were, for the most part, penniless dandies who had no idea of using their hands. A great mistake was made in sending out colonists of this description without a leader strong enough to keep them in order and make them work. Moreover, all inducement to work was destroyed by a regulation which forced the settlers to put all their produce into a common stock. Thus no one gained anything by working harder than his fellows, and the result was that few cared to work at all.

After a stormy voyage the emigrants sailed up the James River in Virginia, and saw round them a country which was a paradise of trees and flowers. But the first time they landed, they were unpleasantly reminded that this paradise was not theirs. "At night, when we were going aboard, there came the savages creeping from the hills like beares, with their bowes in their mouthes, charged us very desperately, hurt Captain Gabrill Archer in both hands, and a Sayler (sailor) in two places of the body very dangerous. After they had spent their arrowes, and felt the sharpness of our shot, they retired into the Woods with a great noise and so left us."

With other Indians they got on better, and, thus encouraged, they started plantations. Some of them erected huts and tents; others were contented to live like rabbits in holes in the ground. Soon their food supply came to an end, and they were almost starved. Their paradise proved to be a fever-swamp, and at one time there were only about five men capable of defending the settlement against nocturnal raids by the Indians. Half the colonists died, and the rest were only saved by friendly Indians, who brought them supplies in exchange for trinkets.

Among the survivors was a Captain John Smith, who, by self-confidence and energy, practically rose to the leadership of the colony. Under his rule it managed to subsist, but in 1608 five hundred new emigrants appeared, led by men who were Smith's enemies. They succeeded in getting him sent home, and after his departure misfortunes fell thick upon the settlers. The Indians attacked them at unexpected moments, carried off prisoners and tortured them to death. Their food-supply again gave out now that Smith was no longer there to make

them take the necessary precautions. They were reduced to eating rats and mice; some even began to devour the corpses of their own dead. One day a happy thought came to one Daniel Tucker as he sat sadly by the waters of the river St. James. He recollected that in a river there are often fish: he therefore built a boat, and some of the settlers obtained food without having to eat each other. But at the end of 1609 there were only sixty out of five hundred left.

The ghastly horrors of this time might have continued till the death of the last settler, if provisions had not been brought by Sir George Somers. He had sailed with the expedition of the previous year, but his ship, separated from the rest in a storm, had been driven into one of the Bermudas. There he took in a store of turtles and wild hogs, and arrived at Jamestown in time to save the surviving colonists. But the fresh supplies did not last long, and the settlers made up their minds to quit the place. On their way down stream, they were met by the new governor, De la Warr, and conducted back to the ruins of their huts and the bones of their dead. De la Warr cleansed the place, but fever drove him home, and the colonists were again left to themselves.

In 1611 Sir Thomas Dale was sent out by the company, and he ruled with a rod of iron. The settlers had to work, but it was not till seven years later, when the colony was made self-governing, and wives for its population were sent out from England, that any progress was made. Then at last the colonists began to take a real interest in the work, their numbers grew, and the cultivation of tobacco brought them comfort and wealth.

X.—THE PILGRIM FATHERS (1620–1623).

In 1620 about a hundred Puritans, men and women, who had fled to Holland in order to escape religious persecution in England, determined to seek in America a country where they could worship after their own fashion without losing their English nationality. They set out in the *Mayflower*, and arrived at Cape Cod in the depth of winter. Before landing, the emigrants made a solemn compact to obey all laws enacted by the community. Then with stout hearts they began to look for a spot suitable for a settlement, and at last fixed upon Plymouth Bay.

During the winter they suffered untold hardships. The cold was so great that their clothes often froze to their bodies. About half died, mostly women, and all the patient courage of these stern God-fearing Puritans was needed to enable them to continue the bitter struggle against cold and hunger and tribulation. Their experiences since the departure from Holland had been far from happy. They had been tossed by storms, and almost stifled on board their small ship. They had escaped from winds and waves only to find themselves on a frozen and inhospitable shore, without houses to shelter them, and with a diminishing stock of provisions. Thus weakened by hardships, it was some time before they could build houses strong enough to keep out the cold. Their condition was not improved by the arrival of thirty-five new emigrants, whose presence at the time could well have been spared, for it was necessary to reduce by half the daily rations of all the settlers.

Some of the new-comers, moreover, offended the

Governor, William Bradford, by the levity of their conduct, a grievous fault in the eyes of the Puritans. Bradford himself tells us the story, which was written exactly as follows:—"One ye day called christmas-day, ye Gonr (Governor) caled them out to worke (as was used), but ye most of this new-company excused them selves, and said it wente against their consciences to work on yt day. So ye Gonr: tould them that if they made it mater of conscience, he would spare them, till they were better Informed; so he led-away ye rest and left them; but when they came home at noone, from their worke, he found them in ye streete at play openly. . . . So he went to them, and tooke away their Implements, and tould them, that was against his conscience, that they should play, and others worke; if they made ye keeping of it mater of devotion, let them kepe their houses, but there should be no gameing or revelling in ye streets. Since which time nothing hath been attempted that way, at least openly."

During the first few months, the unhappy settlers, besides having to face the prospect of death from cold and hardship and disease, ran the risk of being scalped by hostile Indians, who naturally failed to understand what business the pale-faces had in their country.

But one day, in March, the settlers were astonished to see a single Indian issue from the woods and shout to them, as he approached, the word "welcome". On questioning him they found he had learnt a few words of English from sailors who had visited the coast. Some of the English, he said, had enticed the Indians into their ships and carried them off as slaves. The Pilgrim Fathers, however, seem to have impressed him favourably, and he returned next day with a few companions, one of whom



Sabbath-day with the Pilgrim Fathers in New Plymouth.

was an escaped slave able to speak English well enough to act as interpreter. These friendly relations led to an alliance being made between the English and Massasoit, the chief of the tribe. The latter desired their aid against another tribe under the leadership of a chief called Canonicus. Next year this Canonicus, in order to show his contempt for the English, sent to the settlement a herald bearing a bundle of arrows bound in the skin of a rattlesnake. This was meant to be a declaration of war. The arrows were kept, but the skin was sent back filled with bullets and powder. Canonicus apparently understood the hint, and remained in his wigwams.

In 1623 Massasoit saved the colonists from complete extermination by warning them of an intended descent upon the settlement by several allied bands. With his aid a settler named Miles Standish and four trusty followers managed by a ruse to get the hostile chiefs into their power. They slew them without mercy, and the Indians, terrified at such prompt measures, sued for peace. From this time the colonists remained on fairly friendly terms with the neighbouring tribes. They had, moreover, by dint of perseverance and hard work, reached better times. Successful crops kept the wolf from the door, and fresh emigrants arrived to strengthen them.

The settlement never became very flourishing, but it did most important work in clearing the way for a greater Puritan emigration. The energy and example of these first settlers led to the founding of the New England colonies which were to play a leading part in the early history of America.

XI.—PURITANS AND INDIANS (1636-1678).

The New England colonists who settled along the coast north and south of Cape Cod lived on fairly friendly terms with the Indians till their settlements began to extend into the interior. In 1636 they came into collision with a powerful and warlike tribe called the Pequots, whose territory lay behind the young colony of Connecticut. All through the winter, bands of Pequots made savage attacks upon the villages in this colony, showing themselves where least expected, and scalping, torturing, and burning alive both men and women. At last, John Mason, with about eighty settlers, determined to seek out the Pequots and destroy them utterly. He and his men marched to the Indian stronghold, surprised it, and set fire to the wigwams within its walls. Of its 700 occupants only five escaped to tell the tale. This carnage was the work of an hour, and it put an end to the Pequots as a tribe. Their chief fled to the Mohawks, who killed him, and sent his scalp as a present to Boston. The revenge of the Puritans was terrible and thorough. It served as a warning to the other tribes in New England, and for thirty-eight years peace was preserved.

Though the Puritans struck with remorseless severity when roused, their treatment of the Indians was on the whole just. Every complaint brought by the natives against white men "had justice impartial and speedy, so that our own people have frequently complained that we erred . . . in showing them overmuch favour", says Winslow, Governor of Plymouth, and his statement is borne out by other trustworthy evidence. The

settlers paid the Indian owners for every acre of land they tilled, and the Indian hunters profited much by the trade in fur and skins. Many of these thriftless children of the forest were persuaded to raise corn and keep cattle and poultry. When these precautions did not suffice to stave off starvation in the winter months, the white man often dispensed relief with a generous hand. Schools were founded, and accommodation was even made for Indians at Harvard College, but only one student, who rejoiced in the name of Caleb Cheeshah-teaumuck, succeeded in getting a degree (1665).

Though the Indians gained much by contact with the white man, they felt no love for him. They regarded him as an intruder, and they were not civilized enough to sympathize with his way of thinking and his manner of life. They could appreciate his objection to being scalped himself, but they failed to see why he should object to their going on the war-path and scalping their tawny-skinned neighbours. They resented bitterly his meddlesome interference with this interesting pastime. Further, it was difficult for them to understand the reason for some of his actions. When missionaries went about among them making many converts, they concluded that the pale-faces were hatching some villanous scheme for their destruction. But for inter-tribal jealousy and the memory of the Pequot massacre, the Indians would not have tolerated the presence of the settlers as long as they did. When, however, this massacre was forgotten the tribes remembered only that they hated the English more than they hated one another.

In 1660 died Massasoit, the chief who had befriended the Plymouth Brethren on their first arrival. He left two sons, nicknamed by the English, Philip and Alexander.

The latter was suspected of plotting mischief, and he was summoned to Plymouth, where he managed to satisfy the authorities as to his innocence. On the return journey he was seized with a fever and died. According to Indian ideas, death by anything but burning or the tomahawk was unnatural and caused by witchcraft. It was, therefore, obvious that the English had bewitched poor Alexander. From this moment his brother Philip meditated revenge, but it was not till 1674 that hostilities actually broke out. Philip's tribe, the Wampanoogs, were the first to go on the war-path, and their example was soon followed by other tribes. For four terrible years the peaceful settlements suffered all the horrors of Indian warfare, rendered more horrible still by the fact that the Indians had learnt how to use the white man's weapons, and were now able to fight him on more equal terms.

Amid many tales of bloodshed and brave deeds one stands out conspicuous by the mystery that surrounds it. On September 1st, 1674, the inhabitants of Hadley, a little village in the Connecticut valley, were praying in their church, when all at once the blood-curdling yells of the Indians were heard. The men seized their arms and rushed out, but the sight of their fierce foes made them quail and fall back. Suddenly there stood before them an old man, tall and stately, whose voice and look were those of one born to command and be obeyed. He gave the word to charge, and the flinching band sprang to the attack. When the fight was over and the victory won, the stranger was nowhere to be found. He had gone as mysteriously as he had come. It was afterwards believed that he was General Goffe, one of the judges of Charles I., who had been hunted from England by the vengeance of Charles II. From his hiding-place the old soldier of

Cromwell had seen the Indian assault, and had issued forth to prove that Indians were, even as Cavaliers, but stubble to the sword of an Ironside.

As the war went on, the Puritans steadily gained the upper hand. They were fighting for their homes and their children, and they spared not. A tribe called the Narraganset was the first to succumb. On a dark winter's night about a thousand men, under Winslow, entered the swamp where lay their stronghold. It was attacked and carried at the point of the sword. The carnage lasted till the sun went down. A thousand Indians perished, and the survivors fled through the falling snow from the slaughter-house that had been their home. This victory did not end the struggle. Murderous attacks were made by Indians on one village after another, and wherever the Puritans could find their slippery foes no quarter was given. Philip himself, tracked from lair to lair, was at last found in a swamp and shot.

By the middle of 1678 the work of extermination was almost complete, and the remnants of the tribes submitted. Little mercy was shown to the survivors, and many were sold into slavery. The English themselves had suffered great losses. Twelve towns had been utterly destroyed, and more than forty had suffered from fire and slaughter. Hundreds of men, women, and children had been slain, burnt alive, or impaled. The Indians of New England never again caused any anxiety to the settlers, but it took the latter many years to recover from the effects of this ruthless war.

XII.—THE FOUNDING OF NEW YORK AND PENNSYLVANIA (1609–1718).

In the year 1609 Henry Hudson, an English sailor in the service of the Dutch East India Company, sailed from Amsterdam, and after a vain attempt to find a northern passage to the Indies, went on a voyage of discovery along the eastern coast of North America. Leaving Newfoundland behind him, he steered south, stopping at various points to examine the country. In the bay on the shores of which Portland now stands, he met with Indians, who showed themselves very friendly and willing to trade. Hudson appears to have mistrusted them, and, without any provocation, landed twelve men and attacked them unexpectedly. We “drove the savages from their houses, and tooke the spoyle of them”, he writes, and adds by way of excuse, “as they would have done by us”. After this exploit he continued his course to the south as far as Chesapeake Bay, where he turned the bow of his ship north.

On the return journey he explored Delaware Bay, and subsequently sailed past the future site of New York, up the river which bears his name. There, according to his own account, he found the Indians to be “very loving people”, and “wee were well used”. The “mate went on land with an old savage, a governor of the countrey; who carried him to his house and made him good cheere”, presenting him “with a platter full of venison dressed by themselves”. Leaving them, Hudson sailed back down the river, and was saluted with a parting shower of arrows by the less-confiding Indians who dwelt about its mouth. After his return home he went on

another voyage in search of the North-West Passage, and found himself forced to winter in the great bay which bears his name, and was the scene of his sad and tragical end. Here his crew mutinied, and putting him, with his son and seven sick and crippled sailors, into a boat, cut them adrift, and left them to their fate. What happened to them no one knows; they were never heard of again.

The reports brought back by Hudson encouraged Dutch traders to visit the Hudson river and the neighbouring coast, but no serious attempt was made to settle in the country till 1628, when the New Netherland Colony was planted by the Dutch West India Company, and New Amsterdam was founded. Most of the soil passed into the hands of great landlords, or "patroons", who ruled over vast estates cultivated by negroes. There was little room or chance of success for the poorer emigrants, and as a result the New Netherlands never became populous. Meanwhile, the neighbouring English settlements were increasing rapidly in size and strength. The presence of a Dutch colony in their midst inconvenienced them, and in 1664 Charles II., when at war with the Dutch, made a present of it to his brother, the Duke of York. The New Netherlands and New Amsterdam became respectively the province and city of New York. A Dutch fleet recovered the colony, but in 1674 it was finally ceded to England, and the Dutch settlers, who had reason to be discontented with the rule of Holland, yielded without much resistance.

Previous to their conquest by the English, the Dutch had annexed a Swedish settlement on the Delaware. In 1682 a portion of the territory occupied by the settlers of both these nations was granted to William Penn, in

discharge of a sum of money lent by his father to Charles I. Penn was a Quaker of great wealth and high social position. He had become the friend of James II., and influenced him on behalf of his oppressed brethren. Ever since the foundation of the society by Fox, the Quakers had been persecuted. Their opinions and acts, and especially their refusal to pay tithes, brought them into constant collision with the law. They affected great simplicity of dress and speech, they annoyed the magistrates who sat in judgment upon them by addressing them as "thou" and "thee", they refused to take off their hats to their betters, they objected to war, they abominated music, theatres, and sports, and they took no pains to conceal their opinions. That they were very unpopular is not surprising. They incensed people still further by the cheerful and obstinate patience with which they suffered abuse and punishment. They were accordingly treated with great harshness, and this treatment had only the effect of increasing their numbers and inflaming their zeal.

They were no better treated in America than in England. The authorities of Massachusetts threatened to punish them by cutting off their ears and burning out their tongues. The threat had not the desired effect, for numbers of Quakers flocked to the colony in the hope of suffering martyrdom. Instead of having their ears cut off, they were imprisoned, whipped, and hung. They received much the same welcome in the other New England colonies, and at last they began to wish for a home where they could live unmolested. This Penn gave them in the colony of Pennsylvania.

To it came not only Quaker immigrants, but also settlers of all nationalities and religions. Penn himself

drew up laws for the colony, and he made a famous treaty with the Indians, which was never broken, and he thus saved the settlers from all the horrors of Indian warfare that the other colonies had suffered. In Pennsylvania the Quakers prospered and multiplied. In



Penn makes a Treaty with the Indians.

their prosperity they grew impatient of the rule of Penn. They became discontented and turbulent; they forgot what he had done for them, and their growing opposition was only checked by a letter he wrote them from England, setting forth the sacrifices he had made for the colony.

XIII.—SOUTHERN COLONIES (1632-1752).

Old Virginia stretched, roughly speaking, from the north of Chesapeake Bay to the boundaries of the

Spanish settlement of Florida on the south. It was subsequently reduced in size by the creation of new colonies within its territories. The first of these was Maryland, which was granted (1632) by Charles I. to a Roman Catholic, Lord Baltimore, to be a home where Roman Catholics could worship unmolested, but open to men of all sects. Lord Baltimore died, and left the work of founding the colony to his sons. In 1633 the younger brother, Leonard Calvert, landed with about twenty gentlemen and three hundred labourers, many of whom were Protestants. With Calvert came a priest, Father White, who has left us a record of his first impressions.

He marvelled at the beauties of Chesapeake Bay, and of the river Potomac, compared with which "the Thames can scarcely be considered a rivulet. On each bank of solid earth rise beautiful groves of trees, . . . as if laid out by the hand, in a manner so open that you might freely drive a four-horse chariot in the midst of the trees." His joy was, however, damped by an unfortunate accident, which occurred at the place selected for landing. "Here the young women, who had landed for the purpose of washing, were nearly drowned by the upsetting of a boat." But his sympathy for the wet and bedraggled young women was tempered by the loss of a great portion of his linen—"no trifling misfortune in these parts".

Father White was not on the whole favourably impressed by the Indians. "The natives are of tall and comely stature, of a skin by nature somewhat tawny, which they make more hideous by daubing, for the most part with red paint mixed with oil, to keep away the mosquitoes; in this, intent more on their comfort than their beauty. They smear their faces also with

other colours; from the nose upwards sea-green, downwards, reddish or the contrary, in a manner truly disgusting and terrific." Besides Indians the new-comers found a few Virginian traders under one Clayborne, who made himself disagreeable and was subsequently driven out. He revenged himself in the time of the Commonwealth by upsetting the rule of the Baltimores, but they again succeeded in turning him out, and kept their position till 1692, when Maryland became a royal province under a governor appointed by the Crown.

Out of territory in the south of Virginia were created the two Carolinas, granted in 1663 by Charles II. to eight proprietors, among whom were Lords Clarendon and Shaftesbury. The latter, in conjunction with the great philosopher John Locke, drew up elaborate laws for the new colony. These laws provided for the establishment of a landed aristocracy with great powers. But the settlers had their own ideas on the subject of government, and they had no ambition to become the feudal retainers of Locke's nobility of "Palatines", "Landgraves", and "Cassiques". They showed their contempt for the ready-made laws, and resisted all attempts to enforce them, and, in spite of the Palatines, Landgraves, and Cassiques, they cultivated their own estates and stuck to them. At last the Lord Proprietors gave up the struggle, and surrendered their charter to the Crown in 1729.

The last created of the thirteen colonies was Georgia, and the story of its foundation is a strange one. The other colonies were planted by men intent either on making money or on securing themselves freedom to worship as they thought fit. Georgia owes its birth to the human kindness of James Oglethorpe, who, touched by the sufferings of poor debtors in England, raised



money to satisfy the creditors, and obtained from George II. a grant of territory to the south of Carolina, where they might go and start life afresh. They were to be supplied with lands, tools, and arms; they were selected with care so as to exclude persons of evil character, and freedom of worship was permitted to all except Papists. The introduction of spirituous liquors and negro slaves was strictly prohibited.

Oglethorpe was an old Oxonian, who had left the university to serve as an officer under Marlborough, Prince Eugene, and other noted generals. He was as learned as he was brave. He was "heroic, romantic, and full of gallantry". With such a leader the settlers of the young colony set hopefully to work. The town of Savannah was founded, the silk industry was started, and the arrival of fresh immigrants, Scotch, Italian, and German, added to the strength and the prospects of the settlement. Friendly relations were established with the Indians; their chief, who bore the name of Tomo-chi-chi, and a few companions accompanied Oglethorpe on his return to London in 1734. They were amazed at the wonders they saw, and delighted with the presents they received, and they went back to astonish the ears of their friends and relatives by their accounts of the far-away home of the white men.

The settlers were fortunate in gaining the good-will of the Indians, for the Spaniards in Florida regarded with anything but a benevolent eye this intrusion into territory they claimed as their own. Four years after the arrival of the English they sent a force with instructions to fall upon the settlement if they found it unprepared for the visit. Oglethorpe was, however, quite ready and willing for the fray. Not caring to make his

nearer acquaintance, they shouldered their guns and went home. Peace was not of long duration, for when war broke out between the mother-countries in 1739, the Spanish colonists made a furious attack upon the island of Amelia, which, it appears, resulted only in the slaughter of two invalids who happened to be taking exercise in the woods. Oglethorpe retaliated by marching on the Spanish capital, St. Augustine, but found it too strong to be taken. His audacity, however, served to keep the Spaniards peaceful for two years. Then a Spanish fleet of fifty-one vessels with 5000 men on board attacked the island of St. Simon. Oglethorpe had only 650 men, yet he defeated and outwitted the invaders, who sailed away, leaving Georgia in peace.

Meanwhile the settlers had been passing through days of trial. Troubles and dissensions arose; they quarrelled among themselves and also with their young preacher, John Wesley, afterwards so famous. He made himself unpopular, and had to leave the colony. The silk industry was a failure, the climate was oppressively hot, and soon the settlers, envious of their neighbours in Carolina, clamoured for negro slaves and the right to import spirituous liquors. This was at last granted to them. Shortly afterwards Oglethorpe returned to England, and he did not again visit Georgia, which in 1752 became a Crown colony. Its founder died at a ripe old age, honoured and loved by all who knew him.

XIV.—THE ENGLISH AND FRENCH IN CANADA (1). 1534–1748.

The French were the first to attempt to colonize Canada. As early as 1534 Cartier was busy exploring for them the country round the St. Lawrence, but not till the beginning of the next century did they begin to make permanent settlements under the leadership of Champlain, the greatest and noblest of French pioneers. About the same time the English were arriving and settling on the Atlantic border to the south. It was not long before these two rival claimants for the possession of the North American continent came to blows.

In 1628 Charles I. declared war against France, and sent a fleet under Admiral Kirk to take Quebec. This he succeeded in doing in the next year, for Champlain, with a half-famished garrison, was unable to resist. But when Kirk returned to England he learnt, to his amazement and disgust, that, peace having been declared, the English conquests were to be restored to France. They were not actually restored till three years later, when Charles, being in a hurry to raise the money needed to carry on war against his subjects, received from the French king a large sum as the reward for signing the treaty of restitution. Cromwell repaired this blunder to a certain extent by conquering Nova Scotia, which was held by the English till it was handed back to the French by another Stuart, Charles II., in 1667.

When the last of the Stuarts was removed from the throne, the way was cleared for the great struggle between France and England for colonial and maritime supremacy. But it was not till more than half a century

had passed away that England found at last in William Pitt a minister who had no "craven fear of being great", and who drew the sword in earnest, knowing well that England would have to strike for victory or lose all hope of empire. Meanwhile the French and English in America were left pretty much to fight their own battles.

At the end of the seventeenth century the English colonies, which stretched south of Canada down the west coast of Florida, had grown in size and importance, and were becoming a serious menace to the French settlements. In 1690 the rival colonies imitated the example of the mother-countries, broke into open hostilities, and entered on a border warfare, which was characterized by great cruelties on both sides. Each party let loose its Indian allies, and the fierce red-skin lost no opportunity of scalping the pale-faces, who had come with gun and axe to drive him from the woods and valleys where his forefathers had hunted in peace. From time to time the mother-countries joined in, without achieving any final results. In 1713 the French had succeeded so far as to extend a line of forts from Canada south to the Mississippi, thus shutting the English between the Alleghanies and the sea. England, on the other hand, had got final possession of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, and Hudson Bay Territory.

It was not till more than thirty years later that the English struck the first important blow. Shirley, the Governor of Massachusetts, determined to make an assault on the great French stronghold of Louisburg. The colony was forced to take this step in order to render its commerce and fisheries secure from the attack of the French privateers which made the harbour of Louisburg their headquarters. Four thousand settlers were collected,

and the home government sent a fleet to co-operate in the attack. It was a difficult undertaking, for the fortress was considered almost impregnable, and the mouth of the harbour was defended by a formidable island-battery.

But the colonists effected a landing, and set fire to a storehouse full of turpentine and tar. Their action had unexpected results. The suffocating smoke which rose from the burning stores chanced to blow in the direction of one of the enemies' batteries, and put its defenders to ignominious flight. Before they had time to return, their guns were in the hands of the English, who opened fire upon the fort. This exploit was followed by the capture of a French ship bringing much-needed stores for the garrison. But it took the besiegers a fortnight to drag their own guns on sledges over marshy ground into position on the land side of Louisburg.

After a seven weeks' siege the fort was almost destroyed and the town ruined. The garrison surrendered, and the whole of the island of Cape Breton passed into the hands of the British, who could now command the entrance to the St. Lawrence. The French home government were dismayed at the loss of Cape Breton, and three years later succeeded in exchanging it for Madras, which they had captured from the English. Thus the advantage gained by the colonists was foolishly thrown away.

XV.—THE ENGLISH AND FRENCH IN CANADA (2). 1752-1757.

In 1752 Duquesne arrived as Governor of French Canada, and began erecting new forts in the rear of the English possessions, so as to prevent their expansion to

the west. Washington, afterwards to become so famous, was sent to resist these encroachments, but he was forced to surrender to superior numbers. The home government now became alarmed, and sent out General Braddock to destroy the forts. He got within eight miles of Fort



General Braddock's Army is attacked by Unseen Foes.

Duquesne, but his over-confidence led him into an ambush. Without any warning a storm of bullets poured into his troops from the dark and tangled forest around, and threw them into complete confusion. He himself was mortally wounded, and 456 of his men were left dead upon the field. All his baggage, ammunition, and money fell into the hands of the enemy. This defeat immediately brought bands of hostile Indians into the English frontier settlements, and with them the horrors of Indian warfare. Many a peaceful homestead was surprised and burnt, and their terrified occupants fled from the flames only to fall beneath the tomahawk and scalping-knife.

One unhappy result of Braddock's defeat was the expulsion from Nova Scotia of the French settlers, or Acadians, who had remained in this province after it had passed into British hands. Their presence was undoubtedly a standing menace, but whether Governor Lawrence was justified in adopting such stern measures is a question that has been often discussed and disputed. It is impossible for us now to understand all the circumstances of the case. Lawrence probably felt that the critical position of the English colonists at this moment made it necessary for him to take any precautionary measure, however harsh. So, about seven thousand men, women, and children were driven from their pleasant homes, and dispersed among the English colonies, where they were coldly received. Even those who reached French territory were not welcomed. This pathetic incident in the early history of Canada has been immortalized by Longfellow in his *Evangeline*, of which the following is the second stanza:—

This is the forest primeval; but where are the hearts that beneath it
Leaped like a roe, when he hears in the woodland the voice of the
huntsman?

Where is the thatched-roof village, the home of Acadian farmers?—

Waste are those pleasant farms and the farmers for ever departed,
Scattered like dust and leaves, when the mighty blasts of October
Seize them, and whirl them aloft and sprinkle them far over the
ocean.

The position of the French was now further strengthened by the arrival of Montcalm as general of their forces. He was a man of exceptional ability and power, and he soon made his presence felt. The English suffered disaster after disaster. Montcalm, with a superior force,

captured the important Fort William - Henry. Its defenders, who fought till their ammunition failed, marched out on the undertaking not to serve against the French for eighteen months. With the French were a number of Indians, who, thirsting for blood and plunder, scalped all the English wounded, and then attacked the retreating column, which had no ammunition and only a few bayonets. They murdered several, and stripped hundreds of everything they had on them. The wretched fugitives—men, women, and children—arrived at the nearest fort, most of them half-naked, and followed by a French escort to defend them from further maltreatment. Montcalm, humane as he undoubtedly was, committed a grievous mistake in not keeping his ruthless Indian allies in leash.

In 1757, after a century and a quarter of intermittent warfare, often carried on while the mother-countries were at peace, neither nation had secured the supremacy. Fortune, indeed, seemed to favour the French. Montcalm was leading them to victory. By a wise policy of conciliation they had secured the friendship of nearly all the Indian tribes. They were united under one government, and, unlike the English colonists, their military movements were under the control of one chief. A chain of forts connecting their settlements on the St. Lawrence with those round the mouth of the Mississippi, defended them from attack, and stood in the way of English colonial expansion to the west.

On the other hand, they were inferior to their rivals in wealth and in numbers, and they lacked the support of the mother-country, which placed ambitious schemes of conquest in Europe before its duty to its colonies. The genius of Montcalm might have saved French Canada from the fatal consequences of this short-sighted

policy of neglect. But the genius of Montcalm was soon to be opposed by the genius of Pitt and the heroism of Wolfe. These two men gave Canada to England.

XVI.—LORD CHATHAM AND THE EMPIRE (1). 1757–1763.

William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, became foreign minister at a very critical moment in the history of England. The country was engaged in the great struggle with France for colonial and maritime supremacy, and the French were carrying all before them. They were victorious in America, and men and arms were being sent to Montcalm in spite of English cruisers. Though hostilities had commenced in America and on the sea, war was not declared till 1756. Shortly afterwards Minorca fell into the hands of the French, and Admiral Byng made no attempt to save it. His ill-timed timidity gave France the control of the Mediterranean, and showed the world that the English flag was no longer to be feared. Humiliated, panic-stricken, and raging at its own impotency, the nation rose against its feeble and incapable rulers. Byng was executed as a warning to his fellow-admirals. But this was not enough. There was one man who could save the country from defeat and disgrace, there was one man England could trust, and into his strong hands she placed her destiny.

The first months of Pitt's administration were months of disaster. He had to suffer from the follies of his predecessors. George II., in order to save Hanover, had allied himself with Frederic the Great of Prussia. But Frederic had plunged into the Seven Years' War with

France, Austria, Russia, and Sweden. Fighting against fearful odds he could barely hold his own. The Duke of Cumberland, the victor of Culloden, was sent with an English army to defend Hanover. The French met him, beat him, drove his army before them, overran Hanover, and by the Convention of Closter-Seven forced Cumberland to capitulate. He had no choice but to surrender, for his army was outnumbered and ill-disciplined and disheartened. But England was in no temper to weigh the circumstances. It was enough that he had been defeated; he was received with execration, and, less



William Pitt, first Earl of Chatham.

happy than Byng, lived to suffer the bitterness of failure and disgrace. His defeat did not end the tale of disaster. An expedition sent by Pitt against Rochefort failed owing to the caution of Mordaunt, the commander of the land forces, who dared not risk the chance of defeat. He was acquitted by a court-martial, but Pitt never employed him again. He wanted men who had no thought but victory, and he found them.

The one bright event in this year of gloom (1757) was

Clive's victory at Plassey. It was overshadowed by the disasters in Europe. "We are no longer a nation", wrote Lord Chesterfield. Pitt himself was despondent, but he had faith in himself. "I am sure that I can save the country, and that no one else can." This was no empty boast, for in 1758, delivered from incompetent officers and strong in the support of the nation, he set vigorously to work. His fierce energy electrified all who came into his presence. "No man ever entered his closet who did not come out of it a braver man." He prepared to strike crushing blows. France was the enemy; he determined to ruin her, sweep her ships off the sea, and strip her of her colonies. His aim was single, the aim of France was twofold, and therefore less easy to achieve; Pitt saw this; he saw that the weakness of the French lay in the fact that they were bent on conquest in Europe as well as on colonial empire. Their forces were divided, and in order to keep them divided it was necessary to save Frederic of Prussia from annihilation. If Frederic succumbed to his numerous foes, France, triumphant on the Continent, would be able to devote all her energies to the naval and colonial struggle with England.

Pitt, as he said, meant to conquer America in Europe. He reorganized the Hanoverian army and strengthened it with 12,000 English. He had found two generals, Amherst and Wolfe, upon whom he could rely, but they were wanted for other work. Throwing national vanity to the winds, he asked Frederic to lend him a general. Frederic gave him Prince Ferdinand. This prince, with his little army, beat the French at Creveldt, routed them at Minden, harassed them, and kept them at bay till the end of the war. But Ferdinand's successes depended upon Frederic's safety. If Frederic was vanquished

nothing could save the Hanoverian army from being crushed between the overwhelming forces of France and Austria. Pitt paid the King of the Prussians an annual subsidy of £700,000, and had it not been for this aid Prussia would probably have disappeared from the map of Europe.

The English paid the subsidy without a murmur, and it was well spent, for it enabled them more surely to crush France on the sea and in America and India. Amherst and Wolfe were sent to Canada, and on the heights of Quebec (1759) the latter won North America. Pitt sent reinforcements to India, supported them with a fleet, and hindered the French from giving adequate help to their general, Lally. At Wandewash (1760) the power of France in India was broken by the victory of Eyre Coote. But to win colonies and to keep them, it is necessary to have command of the sea. Without the protection of a British fleet Wolfe and his army would never have landed in Canada, and reinforcements would never have reached India. We shall see that Pitt had spared no pains to wash the flag pure from the stain left on it by Byng.

XVII.—LORD CHATHAM AND THE EMPIRE (2). 1757–1763.

At the beginning of the year 1758 Pitt made preparations to meet and crush the French on the sea, and thus ensure the conquest of their colonies. He inspired everyone with his own energy and zeal; his fiery impatience would brook no delay. He stirred up the Admiralty officials as they had never been stirred before. Anson, the First Lord, protested that it was impossible to fit out

the ships required on such short notice. Pitt replied that if the ships were not ready at the appointed time, he would impeach the First Lord in the House of Commons. Anson found it possible to do the impossible, and he was not impeached. Further, 60,000 sailors were voted, and innumerable privateers were fitted out.

An attack was made on the French West African settlements, and Keppel finally reduced Goree in Senegambia. Off the coast of Coromandel, in India, Admiral Pococke, a man after Pitt's own heart, whose one ambition was to find the enemy and to fight him, made every effort to bring about a decisive battle. But the enemy's chief object was to avoid a decisive battle, and the gallant admiral spent most of his time in long searches and chases. When the French could not escape a conflict, they fought no longer than they could help, and they finally sailed away to the island of Bourbon, leaving the French in Madras to their fate.

It was in European waters, during the course of the memorable year 1759, that the great battles for the dominion of the sea took place. The French prepared to invade England. Transports to carry their troops to British shores were being built in the harbours of the northern coast. The transports, however, could not cross the Channel as long as the British fleet blocked the way. Ships of war were therefore collected at Brest, Toulon, and Dunkirk. But Boscawen anchored his fleet off Toulon, Hawke blockaded Brest, and Rodney paid a visit to Havre, which he bombarded for fifty hours, destroying the transports, and unfortunately also a great part of the town, driving from it many unoffending families terror-stricken and homeless. A few war-ships that had been collected by the French in Dunkirk har-

bour were kept there till the following year, and they issued forth only to be captured off the coast of Ireland.

The spirit of Pitt inspired his admirals. It was the French who now sought to avoid a battle. In vain did Boscawen try to tempt M. de la Clue to sail his fleet out of Toulon harbour. The latter was quite content to wait and watch till he saw a chance of getting his ships safely out of the Mediterranean, in order to join the Brest squadron in sweeping the Channel clear for the passage



Medal Struck to commemorate Hawke's Victory In Quiberon Bay.

of the transports. At last the English admiral departed in disgust to refit at Gibraltar.

Out came M. de la Clue, hoping to slip through the straits unobserved. In this he was disappointed, for Boscawen was on the look-out, and found him near Ceuta quietly waiting for some of his vessels which had gone astray in the night. Being outnumbered, the French had no choice but to spread every sail and run through the straits. They were pursued closely all the afternoon and through the night, fighting bravely as they went. Next morning De la Clue tried to run his ship ashore near Lagos, on the coast of Portugal, but it and two others were taken, and two were destroyed.

The rest escaped to Cadiz, and there they had to remain under the eye of the watchful Boscawen.

The French did not, however, give up their scheme of invasion, though the coast from the mouth of the Loire to Dunkirk was closely watched by English ships. In the harbour of Brest was M. de Conflans with a fleet of twenty-five vessels. Seeing Hawke driven away from the coast by a storm, he hastily sailed out. Hawke met him in Quiberon Bay, and though again a storm was raging, he pushed through unknown shoals and sunken rocks at the risk of shattering his fleet, closed with the enemy's ships in the mouth of the Vilaine, where they had taken refuge, destroyed or captured those he could reach and drove the rest flying up the river. The victory was complete, it gave England the supremacy of the sea, which it will never lose as long as it can find admirals who, like Hawke, are determined to seize victory wherever they can find it and at whatever cost.

The battles of Quebec, Wandewash, and Quiberon destroyed the rising colonial empire of France, swept her commerce from the seas, and dealt her navy a blow from which it recovered only to sink again beneath the blows struck by Rodney and later by Nelson. Pitt's great work was done. He, his generals and his admirals, gave to England the Empire of India, North America, and the Oceans. He made for English history one of the most glorious of its chapters, and in it the record of the few personal faults of the man are blotted out by the record of what his country owes to this giant among statesmen.

XVIII.—WOLFE (1). 1727–1757.

It was in 1740, at the early age of thirteen and a half, that James Wolfe left his home to serve king and country as a volunteer against the Spaniards. But he got no farther than the Isle of Wight, for he was taken seriously ill, and the sword he had intended to dye red in the blood of the Spaniards had to be discarded for his Latin Grammar. A year and a half later he got his commission, and was sent to fight the French on the Rhine. He was in the thick of the blows and bullets at Dettingen, and behaved with the coolness and courage of a veteran. Amid the sword-strokes and the singing of the shot, Wolfe found himself in his element. His bravery was noticed, and he was promoted to a lieutenancy immediately after the victory had been gained.

At the age of seventeen he became a captain, and his promotion was due to merit alone, a rare thing in those days, when an officer's progress depended far more on the favour of powerful friends than on personal ability. A year later, the young captain was sent with his regiment to Scotland to aid in crushing the rebellion in favour of the Stuart Pretender, Prince Charles Edward. There, at Falkirk, he fought in the teeth of a gale of blinding sleet and rain hand to hand with the wild Highlanders, and he saw their claymores hew down the first and second of the wavering English lines. His own regiment stood firm, and protected the retreat of the army when the growing storm and darkness had ended the battle. At Culloden again the broad claymore, wielded by sinewy arms, played havoc in his regiment, but this time the English infantry held their ground, and the Highlanders,

threatened on their flanks by the dragoons, fled panic-stricken from the field.

After distinguishing himself in another campaign against the French, Wolfe, already a veteran, returned home to celebrate his twenty-first birthday. He was now a tall, lank youth, over six feet in height, with narrow shoulders and an awkward figure. His long and pointed nose made forehead and chin slope back like the edges of the "flap of an envelope". His pale and sallow face, where constant illness had already stamped its mark, was relieved by bright blue eyes, which in moments of excitement lit up, and made him look the hero that he was. The wig of the period concealed hair of a fiery red. But in spite of these personal disadvantages, Wolfe could hold his own in society, and his courtesy and manliness made him loved and respected wherever he went.

Men of his character were sorely needed by England at this period, when officers preferred a comfortable berth to hard knocks, and believed that to have courage and a knowledge of routine drill was the whole duty of a soldier. Wolfe knew better, and he passed his spare time with his long nose buried in books and papers on the theory of war. He did all he could to make himself a complete soldier. His labours were not wasted, for a statesman was soon to arise who knew the right man when he saw him, and had the courage to select him over the heads of a crowd of elderly and incompetent officers.

It was while Wolfe, now a colonel, was engaged in somewhat wearisome garrison duty in England or Scotland, that the English and French in America were arming for the supreme struggle. The future looked dark for England. Her statesmen were timid, her

generals vanquished, and her admirals had so far forgotten the teaching of Drake and Blake as to fear to lead British ships manned by British sailors into action. French troops and supplies were pouring into Canada, and Montcalm seemed about to carry all before him. In the midst of these disasters Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham, was called to the head of affairs, and we have seen with what energy he set to work.

In 1756 war had been declared against France, and Pitt began to strike back in earnest. He first attempted a descent on the coast of France, but he had been hampered in the choice of his officers, and the expedition failed. Wolfe had gone with it as brigadier-general, and his services convinced Pitt that he had found a man he could trust. He had found the man who was to win for us at the price of his life an empire which now stretches from the Atlantic to the Pacific, and from the Great Lakes to the ice-bound coasts in the far north.

XIX.—WOLFE (2). 1758–1759.

In 1758 Wolfe was sent with the army under Amherst to seize the fort of Louisburg, in Cape Breton Island. About ten years before, the English government had restored this place to the French after its capture by the men of Massachusetts. The attack was again successful, and the great stronghold of the French in Canada surrendered after a gallant defence. Wolfe's share in the victory had been second to none, and in the next year Pitt summoned him to take part in another campaign. Amherst was to push north from New York, and join Wolfe in an attack on Quebec, the capital of French

Canada. A third force was to advance on Lake Ontario, with a view to cutting off the French traders in the west from the St. Lawrence and the sea.

On the 26th of June, 1759, the fleet which carried Wolfe's army anchored off the Isle of Orleans in the river St. Lawrence. Before him rose the town of Quebec, perched on a rocky headland. Behind it stretched the Plains of Abraham, defended by steep cliffs, washed on one side by the St. Lawrence and descending on the other to the meadows, through which flows the St. Charles. Beyond the St. Charles, along the north shore, the French army, 14,000 strong, lay strongly entrenched behind earthworks and batteries that stretched for six miles to where the Montmorenci poured its foaming waters into the river.

The place seemed impregnable, and Wolfe and his 9000 men had a hard task before them. Amherst, it is true, was advancing from the south, but Amherst's progress was bound to be slow, though sure, for he was a man who did not understand the meaning of forced marches. Wolfe had therefore to do the work himself, if it was to be done before the summer came to an end. He had about three months before him, and he knew there was no time to be lost. He landed his forces on the Isle of Orleans, and on the very first night he was to learn what was the spirit of the men who defended Quebec.

At midnight his sentinels perceived dark shadowy hulks moving down the river from the city. Suddenly, as they watched, each of these floating masses burst into columns of fire and smoke, and the astonished spectators saw a fleet of fire-ships drifting steadily in the direction of the English squadron. Then the crackling of the



spars and the hissing of the flames were drowned by the thunder of the explosives, belched out from the burning hulks. A storm of bombs and bullets ploughed the river, and sent the English on the point scampering in terror to the main body. But the fire-ships spent their fury too soon. The English sailors towed them ashore, and the venture on which the French had spent so much labour and money ended in smoke.

Wolfe determined to commence operations by driving the French out of their entrenchment on Point Levy. His men carried the place at the edge of the bayonet without great difficulty, and started constructing batteries, from which to shell the lower part of the town across the river. Montcalm, who was in Quebec, had urged the necessity of putting a stronger force at this point, but he shared his command of the French troops with the incompetent Vaudreuil, and had been overruled. Now when the burghers saw the English cannon standing ready to shell the city, they asked leave to make an attempt to repair the blunder which had been committed. They volunteered to cross the river, and to effect a night attack on the English force intrenched on Point Levy. Montcalm consented, though he did not believe much in the value of the enterprise.

In the night, therefore, 1500 soldiers and citizens crossed the river and crept stealthily through the silent woods to where the English lay, worn out by the fatigues of the day. But the nerves of the French advance-guard were not equal to the occasion. As they groped their way, with bated breath, between dark and ghostly tree stems, a noise, proceeding from they knew not what, startled them into panic-stricken flight. Their comrades, mistaking them for the English, or worse, fired a volley

which was returned. Then the whole body took to its heels, leaving behind seventy dead and wounded. The English, roused from their slumbers, wondered and waited till the morrow's sun had solved the mystery.

Shortly afterwards the English guns opened fire from Point Levy, and for weeks a continuous avalanche of missiles poured into the devoted city. But though this



View of the Town and Fortress of Quebec in the year 1759.

bombardment might terrify the inhabitants into a desire for terms, it did not affect the French army, which lay secure behind its intrenchments on the river bank. Wolfe did all he could to draw Montcalm out of them, but the latter knew that his forces, though superior in number, were no match for the picked veterans of his rival. He determined to remain where he was till winter drove the English home. Wolfe made one attempt, with the 4000 men he could spare, to attack the intrenchments. He effected a landing on the shore, but 1000 of his men,

in their eagerness, did not wait for the signal of attack, and dashed madly at the enemy. They were met by a storm of bullets, and left nearly half their number dead and wounded on the field.

XX.—WOLFE (3). 1759.

The outlook before Wolfe was gloomy enough. He himself was worn out with fever, fatigue, and care. On the 20th of August he was unable to rise from his bed. He lay there tortured with pain and anxiety, unable to see his officers, and sustained only by his iron will and his unconquerable determination not to yield to death till his work was done. "After that", said he, "nothing matters." For five long days he wrestled for life, while outside, his anxious soldiers, their hearts sinking at the thought of his loss, continued to work their guns and persevere in the never-ending hopeless siege of the hill-fortress. At last Wolfe rose victorious from his bed, his body a wreck, but his mind as bright and as active as ever, and his courage undaunted. He prepared once more to face the terrible task before him.

If he felt despair he never showed it. Thoughts of failure had to be trampled under foot. He saw what failure would mean for him, the young officer singled out by Pitt for a work of such supreme importance. Death was better than disgrace, and he had long made up his mind "that he would never return without success, to be exposed, as other unfortunate commanders had been, to the censure and reproach of an ignorant populace". He also saw that, if Quebec was to be his, desperate measures must be taken. Winter was approach-



General Wolfe is mortally wounded on the Plains of Abraham.

ing, and soon the fleet upon which he would have to depend for supplies would be forced by ice to quit the river. The army would have to retire into winter quarters, and the prospect of taking the stronghold would be further off than ever.

Wolfe now determined to carry out a plan which, to anyone but himself and his brave officers, might have seemed hopeless. He took 4000 of his men up the river above Quebec, and quartered them on the fleet till the moment for action should arrive. One day he heard that French provision boats were coming down stream to Quebec. It immediately struck him that their arrival would fit in with his plan. At nightfall, some time before the provision boats were expected, he put 1600 men into the ship-boats and drifted down stream towards Quebec, close under the cliffs which rose to the Plains of Abraham above. He meant to land at a spot known as the Anse du Toulon, whence a steep path led up the cliff to the plain. Once on the top with his troops, he would march on the city, and the French would have to fight for their lives.

Down the river they went in silence, broken only by the low click of the rowlocks and the dip of the oars in the water. Wolfe was in the first boat, and still as they went drifting beneath the dark cliffs, he recited to his officers the famous lines of Gray, one verse of which was so prophetic of his coming fate:

“The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Awaits alike th' inevitable hour;
The paths of glory lead but to the grave”.

Twice the troops were challenged by the sentinels who guarded the shores, and each time answers given in his

own tongue satisfied the Frenchman that it was the provision boats he heard passing beneath him. The Anse du Toulon was reached; a small body of volunteers scaled the cliff, and fell upon and dispersed the handful of astonished Frenchmen on guard at the top.

Next morning Wolfe and 4500 men were marching on Quebec along the Plains of Abraham. As soon as Montcalm heard the startling news he hurried as many men as he could find against the enemy. At ten o'clock the two armies were advancing towards each other. Then the English halted and waited. The French rushed fiercely to the charge, firing volley after volley, but Wolfe's soldiers waited quietly for the word of command. It came when the French were about forty paces from the first line, and the fire which met them was so terrific that the ground was covered with heaps of struggling, agonized bodies. Yet another volley and the red lines dashed forward, driving before them the remnant of the brave army which a few minutes before had charged so spiritedly to the attack. Wolfe himself led his men on to the city, which for three months had defied all his efforts. In a short time he saw that it would be his, and he pressed on. A bullet struck him, but did not stay him. Another struck him, he fell, and some minutes later he breathed his last, praising God that he could die in peace now that the victory was won.

His brave foe, Montcalm, also received his death-wound in the fight. Next morning his remains were carried to a chapel which still stood erect amid the ruins of the city he had defended so well. In the floor an English shell had torn open the grave into which his coffin was lowered, and with it sank the last hopes of French ascendancy in Canada.

XXI.—PONTIAC AND THE INDIAN RISING (1763–1765).

After the fall of Quebec detachments of British troops were sent to occupy the French forts that dotted the little-known territories between the Great Lakes and the Ohio. The Indian tribes that roamed, hunted, and fought



in the valleys and forests of this wild western country were far from pleased at the advent of the English garrisons. They had lived on good terms with the French, who had made it part of their policy to treat them as equals and allies. The English, less wise than their rivals, had for the most part regarded the Indians with contempt, and now when the latter visited the forts they found themselves coldly received, slighted, and sometimes roughly handled. French traders excited their resentment still further by assuring them that the English meant to drive them from their ancient hunting-grounds.

This and other causes roused in them a fierce thirst for revenge; they determined to destroy the garrisons, attack the settlements beyond the Alleghany Mountains, and, in short, drive the "dogs dressed in red" out of the land.

It was owing to the tact and authority of Pontiac, the great chief of the Ottawas, that the various ill-disciplined and jealous tribes consented to unite in a simultaneous attack on the common foe. In May, 1763, he himself opened the war by an attempt to capture Fort Detroit, which was held by Major Gladwyn with about 120 soldiers. It stood close to the River Detroit, and north and south on either bank rose the little white cottages of the French settlers, with whom the Indians had no quarrel. They took no active share in the hostilities.

Pontiac first attempted treachery, for the ideal victory from the Indian point of view was to win scalps without losing any. One morning he and sixty chiefs marched gravely in single file to the fort and demanded admittance. Each concealed a gun under the coloured blanket he wore. At a given signal they were to fire on the officers, and their followers were to massacre the rest. The chiefs entered, and found, to their surprise, the whole garrison under arms. But whatever they thought, no signs of emotion were visible on their grim and painted faces. Pontiac commenced a long and rambling speech, and was about to give the signal, when a sudden clash of arms and roll of drums disconcerted him. Seeing that their designs had somehow been discovered, he and his worthy followers retired with dignity, only too glad in their hearts to escape with their skins whole.

Gladwyn had been told all the details of Pontiac's diabolical plot by an Indian girl. He had therefore been fully prepared for the death-signal, and his men, by

suddenly making Pontiac aware of their presence at the critical moment, had forced him to abandon his design. Gladwyn, however, made a great mistake when he allowed the chiefs to escape, for the enraged and baffled savages immediately slaughtered the few English settlers outside the fort, and began a siege which lasted several months. No attempt was made to storm the place, but bands of war-painted braves skulked about under cover, and every soldier knew that if for one moment any part of his person was sighted, it would become the target for a dozen bullets. Life under these circumstances was far from pleasant, and it was made more unpleasant by the prospect of starvation.

One day the besieged saw with joy a long-expected line of provision boats rounding a bend in the river, and they gathered on the river-side of the fort to welcome their arrival. Suddenly in the boats up started wild and tawny warriors, whose derisive yells made it clear to the disheartened spectators that their provisions had fallen into the hands of the foe. Three of the captive soldiers managed to escape to their comrades in the fort, but the rest suffered every kind of torture in the Indian villages, and for days their scorched and mangled corpses were to be seen floating down the river. At the end of July the hopes of the garrison were again raised by the arrival of a second fleet of boats, which managed to reach the fort without much loss. It landed 280 soldiers under Captain Dalzell. He now proposed an attack upon Pontiac.

Early one morning, when it was still dark, he and a small force marched to where, behind a stream, lay the Indian encampment. The advance-guard were crossing the bridge over this stream when the silence was broken by a war-whoop which froze the blood in each soldier's

veins. The darkness in front was lit by red flashes of musketry, and many a bullet found its mark. Pontiac's spies had told him of the intended attack, and his scouts had accompanied the march of the English force, gliding stealthily through the darkness on its flanks. The voice of Dalzell, raised above the din, rallied his men, and they charged, but not an Indian did they meet. Still from all sides bullets poured in upon them. They were forced to retreat and fight their way back to the fort, leaving their leader dead upon the field. This victory raised the spirits of the Indians, and the siege of the fort was continued with vigour but without success, for it was now in a condition to hold out against all attacks.

Meanwhile nearly all the other forts had been captured by the Indians, who followed up their successes by swooping down upon the border settlements over the Alleghany Mountains, burning, scalping, and torturing as they went. It was some time before the rising could be quelled, for the army that conquered Canada had been sent home. At length Colonel Bouquet, collecting what forces he could, beat the Indians at Bushy Run, and next year marched into their country and forced them to submit. Fort Detroit was relieved, and Pontiac, seeing that his cause was lost, sullenly paddled his bark canoe to Oswego and smoked the pipe of peace with the English authorities. He then returned to his forests to brood over the ruin of his hopes, and to watch with a sinister eye the pale-face ever pushing his way further into the ancient hunting-grounds of the Indians.

XXII.—THE LOSS OF THE THIRTEEN COLONIES (1). 1775-1782.

After the defeat of the French in Canada, England entered into possession of a territory stretching from Labrador to Florida. What she had won by the sword she was to keep, but the portion that had been colonized by her own sons was soon to pass from under her rule. For a long time the Thirteen Colonies had suffered from the selfish commercial policy of the mother-isle. They were not allowed to export goods to any country but England, they were not allowed to receive goods except from England, and goods which were not made or produced in England had to pass through the English custom-houses.

Industries in the colonies that interfered with the profits of English manufacturers were discouraged or suppressed. For instance, the English hatters found that the Americans, in whose country fur was of course plentiful, had the audacity to begin manufacturing their own hats, and that they were misguided enough to prefer these to the more costly articles sent from England. Such conduct was not for a moment to be borne; the indignant hatters appealed to the British parliament, and it readily took measures to suppress this new and mischievous industry.

Selfishness on the one side bred deceit on the other. Smuggling was extensively practised by the Americans, and with considerable success. Of 1,500,000 pounds of tea consumed annually in the colonies only one-tenth came from England. The success of the smugglers, loyalty to the Crown, and the knowledge that English

arms and ships were necessary to protect them from the French in Canada, enabled the colonists to tolerate for years the absurd restrictions placed upon their commerce. At the same time, however, they had begun to feel that their connection with the mother-country was injurious to their interests, and when Wolfe freed them from all fear of their dangerous neighbours, they no longer hesitated to oppose their interests to the interests of English merchants and manufacturers, and we cannot blame them.

In making self-interest the guiding principle of her colonial policy, England was only acting in accordance with the spirit of the time. She was no more conscious of the injustice of her commercial dealings than she was conscious of the iniquity of the slave-trade. She failed to see matters from the American point of view. From her point of view the discontented colonists were ungrateful and rebellious children who did not know what was good for them. When therefore the English government discovered that the Americans were evading the trade-laws to such an extent that it cost £7000 to collect £1000 of revenue, it naturally saw fit to enforce these trade-regulations with greater severity. It was also natural that the Americans should resent such measures. They still remained loyal, but their loyalty was beginning to grow lukewarm.

The English government next proposed that the colonies should each pay something towards the maintenance of a standing army intended to protect them from attack either by Indians or foreign foes. The colonies, having no desire to see an English army in their territories, either would not or could not agree as to how much each state was to contribute to the common military fund. The English government therefore pro-

ceeded to levy the taxes itself. The Americans resisted the taxes on the pretext that they were illegal. King George III. and his ministers, though they could have obtained the money by other means less objectionable to the colonists, chose to insist upon the right of taxation. Upon the assertion of the authority of the Crown, the Americans were prompt to raise the cry of tyranny, and took up arms in defence of their liberties. Neither side would give way, and the result was the greatest catastrophe in British colonial history.

The first shot was fired at Lexington (1775), where American militiamen stood up to British regulars and worsted them. The great American politician and writer, Franklin, said that the English troops "made a most vigorous retreat, twenty miles in three hours—scarce to be paralleled in history—and the feeble Americans, who pelted them all the way, could scarce keep up with them". Franklin exaggerated; but the success of the colonists was sufficient to show them that the British regulars were not invincible. Again, at Bunker's Hill one thousand Americans held their intrenchments till their ammunition was exhausted. They then retreated in good order before superior forces. A few days afterwards George Washington took up the command of the American forces, and his was the noblest part played in this long and miserable tragedy.

No ordinary man could have conquered the difficulties that Washington had to face. It was his own army, not the English army, that caused him most trouble. His soldiers enlisted only for short periods, and after the first burst of enthusiasm their military ardour and new-born patriotism rapidly cooled. At the expiration of their terms of service most of them were seized with the

desire "of retiring into a chimney-corner", as Washington himself put it. Thus he had to be continually raising new armies of untried men. He was constantly short of powder and arms. At one time 2000 of his men were without guns. In 1776 his army had dwindled to about 7000 men. "One regiment had only 97 firelocks and 7 bayonets." He had frequently to punish acts of insubordination. Yet with this ragged, undisciplined, badly-armed, and often half-starved army he managed to keep the English in check. But for his heroic fortitude and the incompetence of the English generals the American revolt would have been soon crushed.

XXIII.—THE LOSS OF THE THIRTEEN COLONIES (2). 1775-1782.

While Washington was engaged in the double task of keeping his home-sick soldiers together and making head against the English, a small American army invaded Canada, hoping to secure the support of the French Canadians. The latter, no doubt, were not ill-pleased to see their conquerors quarrelling among themselves, but having been well-treated by the English government, they made it clear that they had no intention of throwing off their allegiance to the Crown in order to suit the convenience of the revolted colonies. On the other hand, they took no steps to repel the invaders, who occupied Montreal without meeting much resistance. Here the bulk of the American militiamen, finding their term of service at an end, and being suddenly overcome by an irresistible desire to return to their chimney-corners, made up their minds to shoulder their guns and tramp

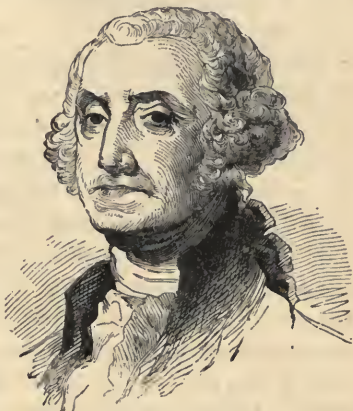
home, thus leaving the unfortunate commander, Montgomery, in dire perplexity.

The military defences of Canada had been grossly neglected by the home government, and but for the energy of Carleton, the governor, the whole of the province would soon have passed into the hands of the revolted colonists. Hearing that Arnold with another American army was marching on Quebec, Carleton collected what forces he could find, and hastened to defend the famous stronghold. Arnold crossed the border with 1100 men. Several deserted him on the way, the rest were half-starved, and to keep themselves alive had to eat dogs, vermin, and roots, and were finally reduced to chewing their moccasins. Nine hundred ragged, shoeless, and famished men arrived at Quebec, where they were joined by Montgomery with about 300 men—all that was left of his army. Together they made an heroic attack on the town, marching to the assault late at night through a heavy snowstorm. Carleton was ready for them, and the gallant Montgomery was among the first to fall. Arnold, after a desperate fight in the narrow streets, had to retreat, leaving many a warrior to breathe his last on the blood-stained snow.

After this repulse Arnold encamped near the city, and was joined by reinforcements. But a violent outbreak of small-pox, and the hostility of the French Canadians, whom the Americans irritated by their demands for supplies, forced the army to retreat. The retreat became a rout, and those who lived to cross the border were in such misery that an eye-witness declared he saw none but dead or dying men in their camp (July, 1776).

In the same month the American Congress issued the Declaration of Independence, which roused the English

to make a serious effort to quell the revolt. General Burgoyne, who had landed with a mixed English and German army at Quebec, was directed to march south and co-operate with the English generals in the States. He was surrounded by superior forces at Saratoga, and forced to surrender. The defeat was a crushing blow to the English cause. Its announcement was followed by the declaration of a treaty between France and the States. Our country was now to pass again through a terrible crisis. She had not an ally in the world, her navy had been disgracefully neglected, and her ministers and generals were incompetent. It seemed as if she were about to lose for ever the position and the empire she had won.



General Washington.

In this hour of extreme peril all eyes were turned to the great Earl of Chatham, whose name was revered by the Americans and dreaded by the French. But he was no favourite of King George III., who, in his desire to be a king in reality, would suffer none but subservient ministers in his presence. He now chose this moment to assert himself, and flatly refused to accept Lord Chatham as Prime Minister. Nothing could move him, and he was evidently relieved when the great statesman, after uttering his last stirring words in the House of Lords, was borne senseless to his death-bed (1778). Parliament voted a public funeral, at

which "it was observed all persons connected with the court were conspicuously absent". In the year following this national loss, Spain declared war against England. In 1780 Holland was added to her foes, and Russia, Sweden, and Denmark formed the armed neutrality with the object of disputing her right to search neutral vessels suspected of carrying the goods of her enemies. She was attacked, therefore, by every maritime power in Europe.

During the years of peace that followed the victories of Hawke and Boscawen, England had neglected her navy. She now learnt by bitter experience that her honour and her power depended upon the strength of her wooden walls. For a time she no longer ruled the waves. The French and Spanish fleets twice sailed up the Channel to parade in triumph off her shores. Gibraltar was hemmed in by land and sea. Many West Indian islands were taken by the French, and if the latter had made better use of their opportunities, nothing but a miracle could have saved our Indian Empire. Hyder Ali, the warlike ruler of Mysore, was leading his victorious hordes up to the very walls of Madras. A French fleet arrived, but it did not bring the troops that were expected, and this mistake, and the genius of Hastings and Coote, enabled the English to retrieve their fortunes. But the worst was yet to come.

In the fatal year 1781, when Washington and his armies were almost reduced to impotence by lack of arms, provisions, and money, a French fleet under De Grasse arrived in American waters. It landed a French army and large sums of money. Washington was now able to strike the decisive blow. With an army of 16,000, of which nearly half were French regulars, he

surrounded Yorktown and forced Cornwallis to surrender. This victory practically finished the war, and deprived England of her fairest and greatest possession.

We have seen why the war began. It ended in the defeat of the mother-country because she had entrusted her colonial policy to ignorant and incapable ministers ruled by an obstinate king, and because her navy, neglected in time of peace, allowed the French to bring to Washington, and the little army that bravely starved and fought under his flag, the aid that alone enabled him to win the victory. The French, beyond revenging themselves on England for the loss of Canada, gained little by the war, for in the next year (1782) the superiority of the British on the sea was once more proved by the victory of Rodney in the West Indies. It enabled the English government to make peace on reasonable terms.

XXIV.—CANADIAN PATRIOTISM (1812-1815).

The war which broke out in 1812 between England and the United States offers striking proof of the loyalty of the Canadians, both French and English, to the British Crown. Canada was in no way concerned with the causes of the war. It was enough for her to know that it had been declared; she readily took up the quarrel, and prepared to assist the mother-country with all her strength.

The war party in the United States had long looked with covetous eyes towards Canada, and believed that its conquest would be a matter of no great difficulty. This belief was strengthened by the existence of a small but noisy and discontented party in Canada, under the

leadership of a man named Willcocks. He led the Americans to imagine that the discontent was much more widely spread than was actually the case, and that they would be joined by many malcontents in any attempt to free the country from British rule. How utterly mistaken this view was the Americans were soon to learn.

In June, 1812, war was formally declared against Great Britain, and the Americans appeared on the Canadian frontier before the Governor-General, Sir George Prevost, had received news of the actual outbreak of hostilities. He had at his command only 4500 regulars, and these were scattered throughout the entire country. But the Canadian militia, who were to play so brilliant a part in the coming contest, readily responded to the Governor's call, and volunteers flocked to his standard from all quarters. From the outset Canada was almost everywhere successful. The American general, Hull, who had invaded the country, was forced to retire to Detroit, and there surrendered to Major-general Brock and his small force of Canadians. The brave Brock did not long survive this success. He was killed at Queenstown Heights, where the next important engagement was fought, but not before he had freed his country from the invader.

Many are the instances of personal bravery and devotion recorded during the war, but none, perhaps, more splendid than that of Laura Secord, the wife of a Canadian militiaman. News reached her that the American General Boerstler had resolved to surprise a Canadian outpost where Lieutenant Fitzgibbon was stationed with thirty soldiers and 200 Indians. Her husband had been severely wounded in the battle at Queenstown Heights, and was unable to convey the

needful warning to his friends. She therefore undertook the dangerous task, and set out at dawn. The outpost was twenty miles distant, and the road lay through dense woods infested by Indian spies. With a courage prepared to face all risks the Canadian woman walked the twenty miles alone, and late in the day she reached the fort, just in time to save her countrymen. Boerstler soon appeared with a force of 500 men, but instead of surprising the Canadians he was himself surprised. So skilfully had Fitzgibbon arranged his small force that the Americans were completely deceived, and very quickly surrendered to what they believed to be a far superior force to their own.

Never during the war was the skill and courage of the Canadians better displayed than at the battle of Chateauguay, in 1813. There Colonel Salaberry, with a force of 900 French Canadians, utterly routed 7000 Americans under General Hampton. At the first onset the front line of the Canadians was forced to give way before the superior numbers of the enemy. But Salaberry held his ground, and ordered the bugler who stood at his side to blow his loudest. Colonel M'Donnell, Salaberry's colleague, perceiving the intention of this order, immediately gave orders to the other buglers to disperse in the woods and make as much noise as they could. From every side came bugle-calls, mingled with the shouts of the soldiers and the terrific war-cries of the Indians. The Americans, fancying that they were surrounded by an overwhelming force, fled panic-stricken, and the victory was won.

Before the end of the year the invading armies had been beaten back at all points, but not before an American general, M'Clure, had committed an outrage unworthy

of the flag under which he served. He burnt down the town of Newark, and stood by to see women and children driven from their flaming homes and forced to watch the pitiless work of destruction, while they shivered and mourned on the snow-clad ground. Next year (1814) the American troops again invaded Canada, but without success; and it soon became evident that the Americans were not going to make Canada one of the United States.

The peace of 1815 brought the Canadians no special advantages, nor did it definitely decide the questions at issue between England and America. The importance of the war, so far as Canada was concerned, lay in the fact that it abundantly proved the loyalty of its population to the mother-country, and served to show that the French inhabitants of Canada were happy and prosperous under the new government.

XXV.—CANADA TO-DAY (1898).

The Dominion of Canada comprises an expanse of territory as large as Europe. In it every variation of climate, soil, and scenery is to be found, as we pass from the fertile banks of the St. Lawrence across the rich corn-fields of Manitoba over to the mild western slopes of the Rockies, and then away north to the wild trackless forests, the deserts, and lakes that stretch from Hudson Bay to the boundary of Alaska and to the now famous Klondyke, where the gold-digger wrests his fortune from an ice-gripped soil. This vast region as yet contains a population of only 5,000,000—not much more than that of the county of London. Of these, 1,300,000 are French subjects of the queen. Forty-four years ago the total

population did not exceed 2,381,000. In 1885 the city of Vancouver did not exist; now it has a population of 14,000. In wealth, trade, and other respects equal progress has been made, owing to a settled form of government and also to the completion of the great Canadian-Pacific Railway, which links Quebec to Vancouver.

The Dominion is a union of eight provinces, each managing its own internal affairs, but leaving matters which affect the Dominion as a whole, such as its trade, fisheries, communications, defensive and public works, to be dealt with by the federal parliament at Ottawa. Imperial matters, those which concern Canada's relations to foreign countries or to the rest of the empire, are the concern of the British government, care always being taken to consult the wishes of the colonists themselves in all such negotiations. As Great Britain controls the foreign affairs of the Dominion, it has to undertake the duty of protecting its offspring in case of attack. But if in the future the colony itself, or the greater empire of which it forms a part, is assailed, we may be sure that the Canadians, both French and English, will do their utmost to help in defending the honour of the flag. At present nothing seems likely to snap the ties of affection and interest that bind the little mother-isle to her great and lusty child across the sea.

The presence of a large French population living contentedly in a British possession deserves more than a passing notice. It is in the *Story of Canada*, by Mr. Bourrinot, himself a French-Canadian, that we can best learn something of these our fellow-subjects. He tells us that in many a quiet valley hidden amid the hills that border the St. Lawrence nestle little villages with spired churches and whitewashed gabled houses, which

look as if they had been brought there with their orchards and gardens direct from Brittany or Normandy. French is still spoken throughout Quebec, and in the remoter parts English is hardly understood except by the priest. A pipe of tobacco, a chat on politics, and old-fashioned dances on the village green suffice to ensure the happiness of *Jean Baptiste*. As long as his political and religious feelings are not roused, he is the most orderly subject of her Majesty the Queen.

The French Canadian is less business-like and less practical than the Englishman, and he is not so enterprising. A fixed salary in a government office is sweeter to him than treading the uncertain paths that lead to great fortune or to disaster. In this he is like the Frenchman of France, but he differs from him in not hesitating to bring up large families, often of fifteen children or more. While the population of France is at a standstill, the number of the French in Canada is rapidly increasing. In many respects the race thrives better under British rule than in the land of its forefathers. Such is probably the opinion of the French Canadian, for though he has a strong affection for old France, and though he cherishes its language, its magnificent literature, and its artistic traditions, he feels that his material well-being, his political liberty, and his religious convictions could not be safeguarded better than they now are, and he has no longer any desire to renounce his allegiance to the great empress-queen.

Canadian statesmen, both English and French, have sought with success to sink ancient jealousies in the common endeavour to further the interests of the Dominion and empire. The present prime-minister of Canada, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, himself a Frenchman, has proved that

he is inspired by the imperial ideal, and his popularity in England was shown by the cheers which greeted him as he rode, but a short time ago, through the streets of London in the Queen's Diamond Jubilee procession.

From the Canada of to-day to the Canada of Cartier and Champlain is a far cry. Of the Indians that roamed and fought and hunted in the vast forests and prairies but a hundred thousand remain. The braves of the Hurons and Iroquois no longer go forth on the war-trail, and the pale-face no longer trembles for the safety of his scalp. The Indians are content to live peaceably in reserves allotted them by the government, and to learn the arts, the virtues, and not seldom the vices of their conquerors. Kind treatment and more civilized interests seem about to check the decrease in their numbers. They have lately shown singular aptitude for industrial pursuits, with which formerly they would have nothing whatever to do. The story of their progress will form an interesting chapter in the Canadian history of the future, and no history will be more interesting than that of the making of a great Canadian nation by the united genius and force of the children of the two noblest countries of the Old World—France and England.

BRITISH WEST INDIES.

XXVI.—JAMAICA AND THE BUCCANEERS (1494–1834).

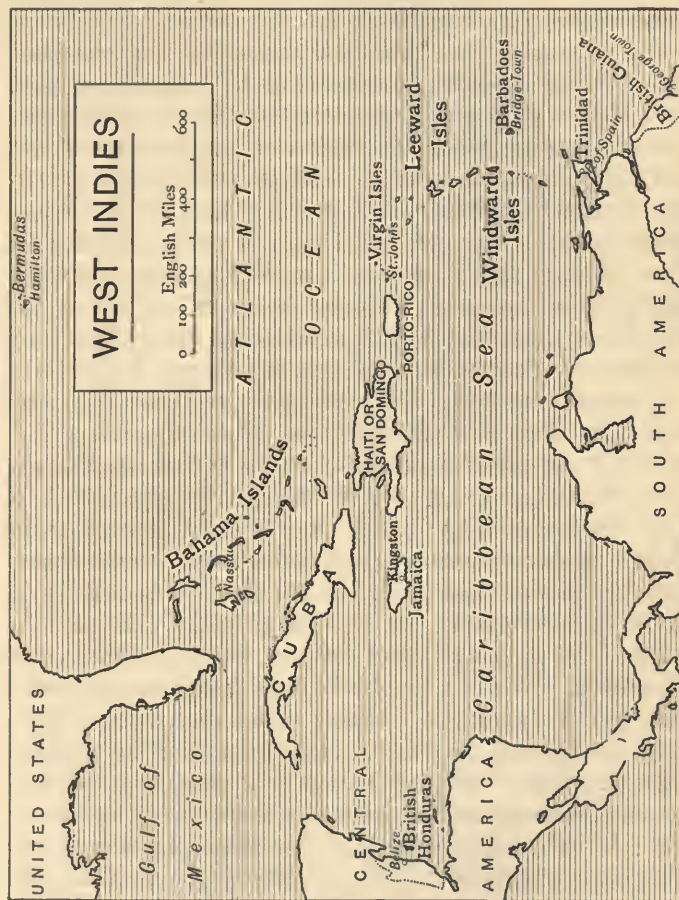
Jamaica is the largest of the British West Indian islands. It is a land of varied scenery and many climes; a land of rugged rock and waving palms, of wood-clad

hills and green savannas, of cool soft breezes and terrific hurricanes; and its history is as varied as its geography. Columbus discovered it in 1494 on his second voyage, he was driven on to its shores by a storm during his fourth voyage. He remained a year, in distress and want, well treated by the conquered natives, insulted and neglected by the conquering Spaniards, who had already forgotten that they owed the New World to his genius and his daring.

The Spaniards do not appear to have paid much attention to their new possession; they did not, it is true, forget to convert, massacre, and enslave the natives, but, finding no gold-mines, they occupied but a small portion of the land. Like other American possessions of Spain, Jamaica was subjected to the attacks of audacious French and English adventurers, who sacked its towns, and sometimes burnt them to the ground. It was twice visited by English forces. Their object was not conquest, but revenge and plunder; they relieved the Spanish settlers of considerable sums of money, and they demonstrated once more that the spoil of the Spaniard was the birth-right of the Englishman.

Twenty years later, Cromwell, the first English statesman who did not hesitate to win a dependency by the sword, declared war against the Spaniards, and sent a fleet to conquer their colony of Haiti. The expedition was badly organized; it was a "sad miscellany of distempered unruly persons", for the most part disbanded Royalist soldiers, led by incompetent generals. They failed to take Haiti, and contented themselves with Jamaica. This possession was the first conquered by the English from a European power. Hitherto they had confined themselves to settling on lands unoccupied except by

natives. We owe Jamaica to the vigorous foreign policy



of Cromwell, and the date of annexation, 1655, is an important one in the history of the British colonies.

For the subsequent protection of Jamaica from attack, and for its early prosperity, we have to be thankful to a class of persons of whom we have otherwise every reason to be ashamed. These were the buccaneers, desperate and bloodthirsty cut-throats, who, in the seventeenth century, sailed their ships into every corner of the Caribbean Sea and far and wide over the Pacific. Their business in life was to plunder and murder, and this business was rendered doubly agreeable by the fact that their victims were the hated Spaniards. They not only avenged their own wrongs and those of their countrymen, but they made their implacable foes pay in blood and money for the tortures, the death, and the lifelong misery they had inflicted on thousands of defenceless natives. The natives themselves regarded the buccaneers as their avengers, and more than once afforded them valuable assistance.

These red-handed rovers of the sea, English, French, and Dutch, did their best to outrival the Spaniards in cold-blooded cruelty, and if they did not succeed their failure must be ascribed, not to scruples of conscience, but to lack of ingenuity. They revelled in atrocities. It is on record that one French pirate of note amused himself by striking off the head of every man in a crew of ninety. Nor did they confine their operations to the sea, for the very good reason that the terror of their flag soon caused Spanish traders to steer clear of their haunts. They did not hesitate to attack large and populous towns, and so great was their daring and their skill in the handling of their weapons that they were generally victorious. The Spaniards lived in a perpetual state of dread. On the appearance of the buccaneers, they collected their money and their goods, and shut themselves up in castles or fled to the woods. If

captured, they were tortured till they unearthed their treasures; their houses were pillaged and burnt, their churches despoiled, and they themselves, their wives, and their children were slaughtered.

Jamaica was the headquarters of the English buccaneers, and it has been asserted that we owe to them the possession of it at this hour. They were welcome guests, for not only did they protect the island from the Spaniards, but they brought it wealth and prosperity. When they returned from their expeditions they spent their ill-gotten substance in riotous living, and the spoil of the Spaniard passed by easy stages into the pockets of the settlers. The most famous of the pirates was a Welshman, Morgan, and his most notable exploit was the sack of the populous and flourishing city of Panama. In 1671, with a following of 2000 men, he marched across the isthmus, surprised the town, pillaged it, burnt it, and returned with immense booty to Jamaica, where he became very popular. He found favour in high places; he acted three times as lieutenant-governor of the island, and he ended his days as Sir Henry Morgan, Knight.

It is well to remember that the empire has been built up not only by heroes like Wolfe, and great statesmen like Cromwell and Chatham, but also by men like Morgan, by buccaneers, convicts, mutineers, cut-throats, corrupt officials, extortioners, and swindlers. It has been won by many acts of injustice, and yet the good we have done has in the end counterbalanced the evil. So it has been in Jamaica. The last years of the eighteenth century saw the suppression of the buccaneers, and in 1834 slavery was abolished in the island, and all the "rights, privileges, and immunities of British subjects" were given to the slaves as well as to the maroons, or escaped slaves,

who for years had kept up an intermittent warfare with the settlers. To-day both white and black live peaceably together, and the latter have now no cause to regret being subjects of the empress-queen.

XXVII.—NEGRO SLAVERY.

“I have been often in all the West India islands, and I have often made my observations on the treatment of the negro slaves, and I can aver that I never knew the least cruelty inflicted on them, but that in general they lived better than the honest day-labouring man in England, without doing a fourth part of his work in a day, and I am fully convinced that the negroes in our islands are better provided for, and live better, than when in Guinea.” Such is the testimony of Lord Rodney, whose name is so closely connected with our West Indian possessions.

Père Labat, on the other hand, a French missionary, who paid a visit to the West Indies early in the eighteenth century, tells a different tale. There were, he tells us, in Barbadoes alone more than 60,000 slaves, who were subjected to the most inhuman cruelties. Daily the lash of the planter furrowed their naked backs; if the victim turned to resist and fight, he ran the risk of being burnt alive; if he sought to escape, bloodhounds were put upon his track, and he was hunted down like a wild beast.

Between these two accounts there is a wide difference, and yet there is truth in both. That the English planters were often guilty of gross cruelties cannot be denied, but cruelty was the exception rather than the rule. Owners regarded their slaves as human cattle, and they cared for

them as they cared for their horses and cows. Kind usage in the case of both was found to be more economical.

In the accounts of an old West Indian plantation recently published, entries of the purchase and sale of negroes are mixed up with those of cattle. Births and deaths of negroes, oxen, and asses were jotted down with the same business-like impartiality. No distinction was made; all were animals, to be bought and sold, whipped if necessary, and worked as long as they had legs to stand on. But at the same time the wise master kept them in good condition for his own profit, and the good master went further, and endeavoured to gain, by kindness, their love and fidelity.

Sir John Hawkins was the first Englishman to engage in the negro trade. He sold his black stock to the Spanish colonists, but, as we have already seen, his proceedings roused the ire of King Philip, who brought John's business transactions with his subjects to an abrupt and unpleasant conclusion. Later, when the English came into possession of the West Indies, scarcely any natives were to be found in the islands. In the Bahamas only sixteen remained, while in Jamaica there was not a single survivor. The original inhabitants had been almost completely exterminated by the Spaniards, who had decoyed many of them from their homes to be worked to death in the mines of Mexico and Peru. The English, therefore, had to look elsewhere for labourers to work their sugar plantations. They were not in sufficient numbers to do the work themselves, nor were they physically capable of enduring hard manual labour in a tropical climate. Following the example set by the Portuguese and Spaniards, they bought slaves, or imported them from Africa.

Agencies were established along the west coast of this continent, where negroes were collected for shipment to the colonies. Advantage was taken of the rivalries between native tribes to induce them to sell one another into slavery. No sentiments of pity entered into these inhuman transactions. Children were torn from their parents, wives from their husbands, chieftains from their subjects. All became equal beneath the driver's lash. Those whose bones did not whiten the track of the slave-catchers, were crowded into the foul holds of ships, where death came to many as a happy release. The survivors were sold to the highest bidder, and if he proved a wise or good master their lot was not unhappy. But if not, their life was a long misery, and it was the fate of these unfortunate ones that at last roused the compassion of a more civilized world.

A living picture of both the happy and unhappy side of a slave's life has been given us by Mrs. Beecher Stowe in *Uncle Tom's Cabin*, and some of the most pathetic poems of Longfellow have been inspired by the fate of the negro exiles. Perhaps the best known is the "Slave's Dream", in which the dying negro fancies he is once more among his own people.

"Beside the ungathered rice he lay,
His sickle in his hand;
His breast was bare, his matted hair
Was buried in the sand.
Again, in the mist and the shadow of sleep,
He saw his native land.

"Wide through the landscape of his dreams
The lordly Niger flowed;
Beneath the palm-trees on the plain
Once more a king he strode;

And heard the tinkling caravans
Descend the mountain road.

“He saw once more his dark-eyed queen
Among her children stand;
They clasped his neck, they kissed his cheeks,
They held him by the hand!—
A tear burst from the sleeper’s lids,
And fell into the sand.

“He did not feel the driver’s whip,
Nor the burning heat of day;
For death had illumined the Land of Sleep,
And his lifeless body lay
A worn-out fetter, that the soul
Had broken and thrown away!”

It seems strange to us that Englishmen could ever have been engaged in this disgraceful trade. But we must bear in mind that the moral standard of the seventeenth century was very different from that of our own day. Even champions of liberty like Milton and Hampden seem never to have realized the iniquity of slavery. At length, however, the conscience of Europe was aroused, and voices were from time to time raised against the infamous trade. To the “Society of Friends” belongs the honourable distinction of having first uttered an emphatic protest. Their cry was taken up by Clarkson and Wilberforce in 1784, both of whom devoted their whole lives to the abolition of slavery. It was no easy task which they had undertaken. The planters were wealthy and influential, and opposed with all their might any interference with the existing system. But after fifty years of incessant labour, success attended the efforts of the abolition party, and on August the first, 1834, slavery ceased to exist in the British Dominions.

XXVIII.—RODNEY IN THE WEST INDIES (1782).

In 1782 the French and Spanish, taking advantage of the revolt of our American colonies, determined to make a great effort to drive the English out of the West Indies, and to rob us of our maritime supremacy. It became known in England that De Grasse, the commander of the French fleet in West Indian waters, intended, after the arrival of reinforcements from France, to join the Spaniards from Havannah and attack Jamaica. Our West Indian fleet, under the command of Admiral Hood, was already outmatched by the French, and the English government saw that if reinforcements were allowed to reach De Grasse, Jamaica would be completely at the mercy of the enemy. It was clear that help must be sent to Hood without delay, and the man to whom everyone instinctively turned was Rodney.

He had been invalided home from the West Indies some few months before, and, in spite of his great services, had not been well received. All the misfortunes which had attended English arms in America were visited upon him, and, from being the popular idol, he became the object of violent attacks both in parliament and in the country.

When, however, it was known that France and Spain were preparing to rob us of our colonies, the past was forgotten, and Rodney was appointed to take over the command of the fleet without delay. He at once hoisted his flag upon the *Formidable*, and hurried forward his preparations in order to join Hood before the French fleet which was being fitted out at Brest could reach De

Grasse. All anxiety on this head was removed by the brilliant success of the English admiral Kempenfelt,



Admiral Rodney on board the *Formidable*.

who, while cruising at the mouth of the Channel, fell in with the French ships on their way to the West Indies, captured fifteen of them, and scattered the rest.

There was no longer any danger of meeting a superior force upon the way, so Rodney at once set sail with those ships which were ready, leaving the rest to follow, and on February 19 he anchored off Barbadoes. The French headquarters were at Martinique; Rodney therefore stationed himself some forty miles to the south, at Santa Lucia, and watched the movements of the enemy. On the 8th of April the French put to sea, and were at once pursued by the English admiral, who hoped to bring them to an engagement before they could effect a junction with the Spaniards. For four days the French, aided by favourable winds, evaded their pursuers; but on the morning of the 12th Rodney was enabled to force on an action, and De Grasse had no choice but to give battle without the help of his allies.

Both French and English, according to the principles of naval warfare then in use, engaged in line. The two hostile lines sailed slowly past each other in opposite directions firing volley after volley. The English fire was especially destructive, for on board the French vessels were huddled together the 20,000 soldiers who were to have conquered Jamaica. Numbers of the dead and badly wounded were thrown overboard to the sharks, which arrived in shoals to feed upon their human prey.

After the battle had lasted for an hour, and the first ship of the English line had almost reached the last of the French, Rodney's ship, the *Formidable*, was suddenly seen to turn and sail through the French line. In thus "breaking the line" the English admiral was introducing an entirely new manœuvre. According to the old methods of naval warfare he would have passed along the French line and then have doubled back upon it, and this is the course he intended to pursue. But having noticed a gap

in the enemy's line, brought about by a sudden change of wind, he resolved, on the advice of Sir Charles Douglas, his flag-captain, to break through, and thus cut off, surround, and destroy the rearward section of the French fleet before the van could return to the rescue. Many of the captains, without waiting for a change of signal, followed their admiral's lead, and the manœuvre was a complete success.

The French were paralysed by these unexpected tactics, and paid no regard to the signals of De Grasse. Ship after ship fell into the hands of the English. The French admiral, in his flag-ship the *Ville de Paris*, held out to the last, fighting with the courage of despair till all his cartridges were spent and most of his crew were killed. He then hauled down his flag and handed his sword to Admiral Hood. The capture of the *Ville de Paris*, the finest ship then upon the seas, ended this memorable fight. It is recorded that throughout the engagement Rodney's favourite bantam cock was perched on the poop of the *Formidable*, and made its shrill and triumphant voice heard amid the roar of the broadsides.

The victory was due, as Rodney himself confessed, largely to accident. The decision to "break the line" was only taken on the spur of the moment, when a sudden change of wind had disordered the French fleet and rendered such tactics possible. But, accidental as it was, Rodney's action marks a revolution in our naval warfare, and made England undisputed mistress of the seas. His tactics were adopted at a later date by Nelson at Trafalgar, and with equal success. The immediate result of the victory, however, was to save the West Indies from all fear of falling into the hands of either

French or Spaniards, for it had given us once more the control of the seas.

EUROPEAN POSSESSIONS.

XXIX.—GIBRALTAR AND MALTA.

There is a legend that in olden times the Greek hero Hercules wandered to the eastern corner of the Mediterranean and found an isthmus joining Spain to the north of Africa. Exerting his great strength, he tore up this isthmus, and piled the rocks up on either side to form the Pillars of Hercules. They stood to mark the boundary of the known world; beyond them surged the Sea of Darkness. The pillar on the north was named Calpe, and that on the south Abyla. Centuries after, victorious hordes of Saracens swept along the north coast of Africa and crossed over to Spain by way of Calpe. There Tarik, their leader, built a castle, of which one of the towers remains standing to this day. Calpe became Gabel-el-Tarik, the Hill of Tarik, which name has since been shortened to Gibraltar.

When the Saracens were finally driven out in 1462, the hill was fortified and held by the Spaniards till war broke out between England and Spain in the reign of Queen Anne. It was then captured by Sir George Rooke (1704), and ever since it has been one of the pillars of the Empire. More than once the Spaniards have tried to win back the famous rock-fortress. Their most vigorous attempt to capture it was made at the time when England's outlook was the darkest, when all the fleets of Europe were arrayed against her, and when

her revolted American colonies were fighting to throw off her yoke. From 1779 to 1783 Gibraltar was besieged by land and sea. It was defended by General Eliott, a veteran who had learnt the art of war under Frederic the Great, the first captain of the age. He held his post against all comers, Spanish, French, and Dutch. He never lost his courage nor loosened his grip, though his soldiers and the townsfolk were oftentimes faced by famine, and his hospitals filled with scurvy-stricken victims.

Twice relief was brought; once by Rodney on his way to the West Indies, and a second time by Darby. Both arrived to see the flag of England still floating over the fortress, and they gave its faithful defenders the reinforcements and the provisions necessary to carry on the good fight. Once only was the flag lowered. The Queen of Spain, fretting at the long delay, came and placed her seat upon a hill over against Gibraltar, and vowed she would not move till the place was taken. Time passed, and Eliott saw that she would have long to wait. Courteously, therefore, he struck his flag for a moment, and thus released her from the vow she had made, and from her uncomfortable throne upon the hilltop.

Eliott was far from thinking of surrender, and in the winter of 1781 he determined to convince his foes of the fact. One evening in September, Brigadier Ross, with two thousand men, descended from the Rock, surprised the Spaniards in their entrenchments, and put them to flight. The Spanish land-batteries were destroyed, the guns spiked, and the powder-magazines blown up. The exploit cost Spain, in one hour, three million sterling and five thousand men, while the English lost but thirty men.

The Spaniards, however, were not convinced that success was hopeless. They and their allies determined

to make one last fierce effort to take the place. A great French engineer built huge floating batteries, so ingeniously constructed that they were thought to be fire-proof and impossible to sink. Eliott made short work of



The Siege of Gibraltar: Destruction of the Spanish Battering Ships.

them; he battered them with red-hot shot and set them on fire. They were changed into flaming torches that lit up land and water for miles around. In the centre towered the grim and grinning rock triumphant and unshaken. Thus ended one of the most memorable sieges in the history of the world. The brave and skilful veteran Eliott returned to England to become Lord Heathfield and Baron of Gibraltar. The rock fortress he defended so well is the noblest monument of his fame. It stands to-day more impregnable than ever, its head

encircled by a bristling coronet of guns, ready to pour shot and shell on the foes of the Empress of the Seas.

In the centre of the Mediterranean stands another British possession, the Maltese Isles. In their long history of three thousand years they have passed through many hands. They were held in turn by Phœnicians, Greeks, and Carthaginians; they became part of the world-empire of the Romans, who surrendered them to the Vandals and Goths. They were annexed by the Eastern Empire, by the Saracens, the Normans, the Spaniards, and in 1530 they became the stronghold of the Knights of St. John, a religious and military order, which had been driven from its home in Rhodes by the Turks. The Knights held Malta till the time of Napoleon, who seized it on his way to Egypt. The Maltese rose against the French, and willingly surrendered their isles to Great Britain. The Treaty of Paris, in 1814, gave the "Island of Malta and its dependencies in full right and sovereignty to his Britannic Majesty".

Malta possesses one of the finest harbours in the world. It is strongly fortified, and it is the headquarters of the British Mediterranean fleet, which cruises in this sea to protect our interests, and to guard against attack the innumerable merchant vessels that pass through it on their way to and from the East. To the British fleet Malta and Gibraltar are of the greatest importance. In time of war our ships in the Mediterranean will find at these places the store of coal which in these days of steam is the food that iron-clads and cruisers must be given if they are to do their work. They can only carry a limited quantity; it is absolutely necessary, therefore, that an ample supply should be found within easy reach. Again, under the guns of Malta and Gibraltar our mer-

chant-vessels and war-ships can, in case of defeat, take refuge. There also the latter will find the means of repairing damages and renewing their armaments. As long as we pretend to control the Mediterranean, Malta and Gibraltar must not be allowed to pass from our hands.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN ASIA.

XXX.—EARLY EAST INDIAN TRADERS (1497–1697).

For centuries European merchants had traded with India, and brought back silk, gems, and spices. But the rise of the prophet Mahomet, and the conquests of his fanatical followers, made it dangerous and costly for Christian caravans to travel by the overland routes to the East. One free route there was by way of the Indies and Caspian to Constantinople, and in the thirteenth century this was seized by the Venetians, and subsequently shared by them with other Italian cities. At the end of the fifteenth century, the Spaniards and Portuguese, eager to obtain access to the wealth of the Indies, set themselves to discover a sea-route.

The Spaniards, led by Columbus, went west and mistook America for the borders of Asia. The Portuguese sought a way round the South of Africa. In 1497 Vasco da Gama sailed round the Cape into the Indian Ocean. His sailors, like the sailors of Columbus, were mutinous, and wished to force their captain to turn back. But they found him equal to the occasion; he put the pilot in irons, and threw charts and compasses overboard. It was now as dangerous to go back as to go forward, so

they sailed on, trusting to fortune, and after a voyage of eleven months sighted the west coast of India.

For the next hundred years the Portuguese carried on a flourishing commerce with the East, but they were unable to found, like the Spaniards in the West, a great colonial empire. Towards the end of the sixteenth century both the Dutch and the English arrived on the scene. In 1600 the English East India Company was formed, and proceeded to combine trade with the pillage of Portuguese vessels. Its first merchant fleet, consisting of four vessels, started from England on the 2nd of April, 1601. On the way it met with a Portuguese vessel, which was promptly seized and lightened of 146 butts of wine and other articles of value. These were "a great helpe to us in the whole voyage after". At Table Bay the "generall", Lancaster, gave his men a rest; they had suffered terribly from scurvy, no less than 105 having succumbed to the disease.

Continuing the voyage, the fleet finally arrived at Achin, in the north of Sumatra. Finding there was no trade to be done with the king of this country, Lancaster, "full of thought how to lade his shippes to save his own credit", sailed to the Straits of Malacca, where he was eased of "a very heavy care" by the sight of a Portuguese ship. "Within five or six days we had unladen her of 950 packes of Calicoes . . . besides many packets of merchandise; she had in her much rice and other goods whereof we made small account." After this exploit he went to Java, where "we traded very peaceably, although the Javians be reckoned among the greatest Pickers and Thieves in the world". In 1603 the fleet returned to England, after a highly successful voyage, the first of many equally successful.

In 1580 Portugal was annexed to Spain, and her power and trade rapidly waned. In the East her traders became effeminate and corrupt, and were not numerically strong enough to resist the English and Dutch. Still, they determined to make an effort to retain their Indian settlements. The English, whom they regarded as "thieves, disturbers of states, and a people not to be permitted in a commonwealth", had established the first factory at Surat. The Portuguese arrived there in force, but the "thieves" proved themselves the better fighters, and gained a victory. This was only the first of a series of disasters and losses. By the middle of the seventeenth century Portuguese trade had been almost destroyed.

Meanwhile, the English and Dutch had come into collision. At Amboyna, the latter surprised and seized Captain Towerson and his followers, and then tortured and beheaded them. This outrage excited great indignation in England, and the East India Company took care to fan the flame by exaggerating the tortures inflicted by the Dutch, who, it was also reported, had added insult to injury by suing the Company for the expenses of a black pall with which the mutilated body of poor Tower-son had been covered. For a long time the Dutch continued to check the progress of the English, though they could not prevent them from establishing trading centres at Madras and Bombay.

The real struggle for supremacy between the two nations took place, not in India, but in Europe. The first blow at Dutch prosperity was struck by Cromwell. His Navigation Act (1651) forbade the importation of any goods from the East, from America, or from Africa unless carried by English ships. As the Dutch at this time had the carrying trade of the world in their hands,

they easily understood that the Act was directed against them, and war broke out. Several naval battles were fought between the two great rival admirals, Tromp and Blake. The latter won a victory off Dover, but he was in turn defeated by the Dutchman, who thereupon sailed down the Channel with a broom at his mast-head, in order to make clear that the English were swept from the seas. Then followed three hard fights off Beachy Head (1653), which ended in the triumph of Blake. Shortly afterwards peace was concluded, and the Dutch had to put up with the navigation laws.

Later on, in the reign of Charles II. the Dutch had their revenge. They sailed up the Thames and Medway, burnt English shipping, and seized Sheerness. They were not able long to enjoy their triumph, for they were attacked and beaten by the armies of the ambitious Louis XIV. Holland, after a magnificent fight, won back her liberty (1697), but the struggle exhausted her, and she ceased to be a formidable rival to England in the East. Her place, however, had been taken by the French, who hoped to found an Indian empire, and to drive the English from its shores. Between these two the fight was to be long and fierce.

XXXI.—CLIVE (1). 1725-1774.

In 1744 war was declared between England and France, and Robert Clive landed at Madras to become a clerk in the service of the India Company. At this time both the French and English had established their headquarters in close proximity on the eastern shores of the Carnatic. The able and ambitious Dupleix governed at

Pondicherry, and General Morse at Madras. On the outbreak of hostilities the French carried all before them. Madras fell into their hands, and the English, Clive among them, had to fly to Fort St. David, which Clive helped to defend against an unsuccessful attack by the enemy. The Peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748 restored Madras to the English, but their prospects seemed at this moment far from bright.

Now that peace was declared, both sides sought to gain power and territory by hiring out their troops to the native princes, who were constantly quarrelling among themselves. In these wars, in which English and French naturally found themselves on opposite sides, the energy and audacity of Dupleix had full scope. By skilfully playing off one prince against another, he succeeded in making himself the real ruler of Southern India. His position was strengthened by the defeat of the English and their native allies at Volcondah, followed by a disgraceful flight to Trichinopoli. The French united with their friend Chanda Sahib, ruler of the Carnatic, to besiege this town, which was but feebly defended. Its fall would have been a serious blow to the already waning power and prestige of the English in India. Their position was extremely critical, and nothing but the military genius of Clive saved them from a great disaster.

The obscure clerk had some time before forsaken the pen for the sword. He was now a captain, and had already won distinction in more than one fight. In order to save Trichinopoli, he proposed to march against Arcot, the capital of Chanda Sahib, hoping thus to draw after him a part of the besieging forces. Saunders, the governor of Fort St. David, readily assented, and in September

MAP OF INDIA at the time of Clive.

*The parts shaded are
British Territory.*

English Miles.

0 100 200 300 400



1751 Clive left Madras with a small force, into which he infused something of his own energy and courage. On the march they were caught in one of the furious thunderstorms that sweep over the plains of the Carnatic. The lightning flashes served to show them the way, and terrified natives, who had seen the British column advancing calmly through the storm, hurried with the news to Arcot. Clive arrived to find the town deserted.

His stratagem had succeeded. Chanda Sahib sent his son Rezza, with a large army of natives and Frenchmen, to recover his capital, thus weakening the forces round Trichinopoli, and delaying the day of its fall. But, on the other hand, the small handful of English in Arcot found themselves in a most perilous position. They had to defend an old and crumbling fort against constant attacks. But they held out bravely, and after one last furious assault, the enemy gave up the attempt, and, finally seized with a panic, decamped one evening in disorder, leaving behind them guns, ammunition, and treasure. Next day reinforcements arrived, and Clive, taking the field, defeated, with an inferior force, Rezza Sahib and the French.

But the French and their allies recovered from their defeat, and advanced, laying waste the country. Clive started to meet them, and fell into a cunningly-arranged ambush. Nothing but his own presence of mind saved his troops from complete annihilation. As it was, he gained a decisive victory, which was followed by the retreat of the French from Trichinopoli. He pursued them, but again was surprised, this time in the night, when he was asleep, and his men were drowsy with heat and fatigue. Shots whistled through the room where he lay, killing a man near him, and shattering a box at the

foot of his bed. He sprang up, and rushing out found his men in confusion.

He himself was assailed by six Frenchmen, but, though seriously wounded and hard pressed, his presence of mind once again turned defeat into victory. Stepping back, he shouted out to the enemy that they were surrounded, and commanded them to surrender. So convincing was his tone that he was believed. The native troops fled, and the French shut themselves up in a temple, which next morning they surrendered. Shortly afterwards the remaining French troops yielded to Lawrence, who had come to take the chief command, and Clive, worn out with wounds and fatigue, went home to England to recruit his health.

XXXII.—CLIVE (2). 1725–1774.

The hero of Arcot, who was born near Market Drayton in Shropshire in the year 1725, does not appear to have made, when a boy, a very favourable impression on his friends and relatives. He was pugnacious and hot-tempered, and led his young companions into all kinds of mischief. At Market Drayton they were the terror of the shopkeepers, whose windows were often threatened with immediate destruction if suitable gifts were not forthcoming to ensure good behaviour. Clive adopted, moreover, disagreeable methods of showing his displeasure. He was wont to stretch himself in the gutter, and thus divert a flood of dirty water into the premises of offending shopkeepers. He neglected his studies, and was impatient of control, but still one of his teachers went so far as to write: "If the lad should live to be a

man, and an opportunity be given for the exertion of his talents, few names will be greater than his".

When Clive returned to England in 1753, he found his name already great. "The booby", said his father, "had some sense after all." He was courted and banqueted, and his praises were in the mouths of all. The directors of the Company presented him with a diamond-hilted sword, and thanked him publicly for his services. Clive now began to lead a fashionable life; he entered Parliament, but his election was contested, and he lost his seat. Disappointment and a rapidly-diminishing fortune induced him to return to India as a colonel in the British army, and Governor of Fort St. David. His arrival was a fortunate thing for the English.

The Nabob (Surajah Dowlah), ruler of Bengal, had made up his mind that the English were to be driven into the sea. With an army of many thousands he marched to the sack of Calcutta. The small garrison prepared to defend itself, but it was basely deserted by the governor and commandant, who fled after the women and children to the ships. They sailed off without waiting to receive the wounded, and were even in too desperate a hurry to send ammunition on shore. The besieged, 146 in number, were forced to surrender, and were driven into a small cell. There, maddened with heat and thirst, the weak were trampled to death, and of the rest only 23 survived the terrible sufferings of the night. These were ordered to quit Calcutta under pain of having their ears and noses cut off.

The tragedy of the Black Hole stirred the English in the Carnatic to take summary vengeance. Clive appeared in Bengal, and marched against the nearest fort. As on previous occasions, he neglected to take ordinary pre-

cautions, and his camp was surprised in the night. But it was in such moments of extreme peril that Clive found himself in his element; he repulsed the enemy, and next day the English fleet bombarded the fort from the river. Sailors were landed to co-operate in the assault, and one of them deprived Clive of the honour of taking the place. This man, getting intoxicated, wandered away, and strayed by chance into the fort itself. Not finding elbow-room enough, he laid about him with his cutlass, and the astonished Bengalese, imagining that he would be followed by a whole regiment, left their strange visitor in sole possession.

Surajah Dowlah, hearing of these proceedings, again marched south with 40,000 men, and succeeded in placing his army between the English and Calcutta. This time it was Clive who attempted a surprise. At three o'clock in the morning he groped his way through a dense fog into the enemy's camp. But suddenly, on his flank, the heavy tread of cavalry was heard, and under the rising mist a long line of Indian cavalry was seen charging down upon his troops, who halted and fired. The horse-men vanished in the fog which again wrapt all in darkness. For a time nothing was seen but the flashes of the guns and shadowy forms moving in the folds of the mist. But the sun at last lit up the camp, and Clive found himself surrounded on all sides. Nothing daunted, his men fought their way through and entered Calcutta. Though he escaped defeat, Surajah Dowlah was sufficiently impressed by the valour of the English to sue for peace.

Clive gladly made terms, for war had been declared between England and France, and he wished to attack the French settlement of Chandanagore. Surajah Dowlah

promised his aid, but fear of the French caused him to hesitate. Clive did not wait for him to make up his mind, marched with superior forces to Chandanagore, slew 100 of its defenders, and captured the fort. This success alarmed the ruler of Bengal, who, fearing the English might get too strong, wrote imploring the French general, Bussy, to march north to his aid. This letter fell into Clive's hands, and the consequences were fatal to the writer.

XXXIII.—CLIVE (3). 1725–1774.

In June, 1757, Clive found himself with 3000 men, of whom two-thirds were natives, in front of the 50,000 cavalry and infantry of Surajah Dowlah. "The Nabob", he had said, "is a villain, and cannot be trusted; he must be overset, or we must fall." On the field of Plassey the supremacy of England was to be established by victory, or indefinitely delayed by defeat. Clive fully understood how critical was his position, and he only decided to give battle after several hours of solitary meditation on the banks of the river which skirted his camp. His chief hope lay in the traitor Meer Jaffir, the commander of the Nabob's forces. Clive had promised, if he would come over to his side on the field of battle, to make him Viceroy of Bengal in the place of Surajah Dowlah. But if Jaffir again turned traitor, the English troops would march to almost certain destruction.

At daybreak (June 23rd) Clive beheld the vast army of Surajah Dowlah marching towards him, their banners fluttering in the breeze, and the swords of their horsemen flashing in the morning sun. With them came a

small band of French soldiers eager to aid in delivering the blow which would retrieve the waning fortunes of their country. It was they who opened the fight with their cannons, and Clive found it necessary to fall back into a grove where earth-works had hastily been thrown up. Here his men were able in security to pour volley after volley into the opposing masses. But Clive looked in vain for the support of Meer Jaffir, who, on the left wing of the Indian army, was quietly waiting to see which side was likely to win.

At noon a torrent of rain fell, soaking the enemy's ammunition and stopping their fire. Then Meer Madan, the brave



Robert, Lord Clive.

chief of the Nabob's cavalry, determined to make one fierce charge for the honour of his master and the glory of Bengal. He led on his splendid horsemen against the British intrenchments, but they were met by a storm of grape, and fled, leaving their chief dead upon the field. Surajah Dowlah now summoned Meer Jaffir, and implored him to attack the enemy. The latter promised to do so, but instead of attacking, he sent a message to Clive urging him to advance and gain the victory.

But Clive neither got the message nor needed the advice. At the head of his men he dashed out of his intrenchments. The Frenchmen alone withstood him, and by five o'clock in the evening the battle was won.

Meer Jaffir, in spite of his attitude during the battle, was made Viceroy of Bengal, but the honour cost him altogether £3,000,000 in cash alone. It was Clive's acceptance of a large portion of this sum which led to his impeachment some years later. As for poor Surajah Dowlah, he was found hiding by a man whose nose and ears he had formerly cut off, and by him was cheerfully handed over to the tender mercies of Meer Jaffir.

Bengal, the richest province in India, passed practically into the hands of the British, who were now in a position to drive out all their rivals. The Dutch made an ineffectual effort to regain some of the ground they had lost, but Forde, one of Clive's lieutenants, crushed their hopes at the battle of Biderra. Next year (1760), at Wandewash, Lally, who like Dupleix had struggled bravely in spite of the grudging support of his country, was defeated by Eyre Coote, another of Clive's lieutenants, and his fall marked the final extinction of French power in India. From this time the English were slowly but surely to assert their sway over the whole of the peninsula from Cape Comorin to the Himalayas.

Clive, at the age of thirty-five, returned to England and was created a peer, with the title of Lord Clive, Baron Plassey, an honour which he fully deserved. But in 1764 the maladministration of the Company's affairs in India made his return a necessity. He found corruption and vice flourishing in both the civil and military departments, and he had to spend a year and a half in effecting what Macaulay has called "one of the most

extensive, difficult, and salutary reforms that were ever accomplished by any statesman". But after he had come back to England, the Company's finances again fell into disorder, and were examined into by the government. This inquiry brought to light, amongst other things, Clive's money transactions with Meer Jaffir. In spite of his great services he was impeached, and though acquitted, the blow plunged him into one of his moods of melancholy, and in 1774 he died by his own hand.

XXXIV.—WARREN HASTINGS (1). 1732–1818.

In 1739 Warren Hastings, a little boy of seven, was a pupil at the village school of Daylesford in Worcestershire. There the future ruler of India, with its population of fifty millions, learned his first lessons among the children of the villagers. But though there was little in his mode of life to distinguish him from the ordinary village lad, yet he came of an illustrious race. The Hastings of Daylesford had once been a wealthy and distinguished family, and had played an important part in history; but at the time of Warren's birth, their greatness had passed away. They had been forced to sell their estate, and were reduced to great straits. The grandfather of Warren Hastings was rector of Daylesford, and it was to his care that the lad was entrusted on the death of his father.

At the age of twelve Warren was sent by an uncle to Westminster School, where he soon took a prominent position in work and games. His name may still be seen engraved on a wall in one of the dormitories. He was a promising pupil, and was expected to carry all

before him at the university; but such a career was not to be his. When he was about to leave school for college, his uncle died, and the distant relative to whose care he



Warren Hastings.

was committed obtained for him a clerkship in the East India Company. It was in vain that the head-master of Westminster protested against the interruption of his pupil's studies, and prophesied a great university career for him. His guardian, anxious to rid himself of his

charge, was obstinate, and in 1750 Warren was shipped off to India at the age of seventeen.

He arrived in India at a critical period in the Company's history. Up to this time commerce had been the one aim of the English in India, and they had, on principle, avoided any further extension of territory. But from the middle of the eighteenth century conquest and commerce went hand in hand. The Company's servants had therefore to be soldiers as well as men of business, for sword and pen were constantly interchanged. Thus we find Hastings serving as a volunteer under Clive, when the latter was fighting against Surajah Dowlah. Clive soon recognized the high qualities of Hastings, and after the battle of Plassey (1757) appointed him agent for the Company at the court of Meer Jaffir, the new Nabob of Bengal, where he remained until 1761. Not much is known of Hastings' conduct during these early years, but what little we do know is to his credit. For while he had ample opportunities of amassing a fortune by plundering the natives—and in so doing he would only have been following the example set by other servants of the Company—yet, when he returned to England for a short time in 1765, he was a poor man.

In 1772 Hastings was appointed Governor of Bengal, and it was during his governorship that the Rohilla war took place, for which he has been so severely condemned. The Rohillas were a warlike tribe, numbering nearly a million, and they lived in the fair vale of Rohilkhand on the north-east frontier of Oudh. The Vizier of Oudh coveted this territory, and taking advantage of the failure of the Rohillas to carry out the terms of a treaty which they had made with him, offered Hastings a large sum if he would assist him to conquer them and annex

their territory. After some hesitation Hastings agreed to lend the English army to the vizier, in return for £400,000 and payment of all expenses. An English force was sent under Colonel Champion to join the vizier's army, and a fierce battle was fought. The Rohillas showed splendid courage, and it was not till they had lost all their leaders that they gave way before the fire of the English. The cowardly vizier had fled from the field at the first onset, leaving the English to win the battle for him.

When there was no longer anything to fear from the enemy, the vizier appeared again upon the scene with his troops, eager to have his full share of the plunder, and to satisfy his warlike ardour by butchering defenceless women and children. When everything of value had been seized, the work of destruction was begun. Villages were committed to the flames, and their inhabitants were either burnt, speared, or put to flight. More than a hundred thousand fled to the jungles, preferring to die from starvation, or to be eaten by wild beasts, rather than to trust themselves to the cowardly cut-throats of the vizier.

XXXV.—WARREN HASTINGS .(2). 1732-1818.

In 1774 Parliament made changes in the constitution of the East India Company, and Warren Hastings became the first Governor-general of all our Indian territories, assisted by a council of four, of whom Philip Francis was the best-known member. The councillors were from the first prejudiced against Hastings, and had determined to drive him from the country and obtain

the governor-generalship for one of themselves. They accordingly did all in their power to discredit him, and they instituted strict inquiries into all his actions. The natives soon began to see that the real power rested, not with the governor-general, but with his council, and were only too ready to invent accusations against the man they no longer feared, in order to curry favour with their new masters.

Charges began to pour in, all of which the council affected to believe. Among them was one made by Nuncomar, a wealthy Calcutta banker, and an old enemy of Hastings, whom he accused of having received nearly £40,000 by the sale of offices and the taking of bribes from notorious offenders. The councillors insisted that Nuncomar should be called before the board and required to substantiate his charges. Hastings, very properly, refused to allow his colleagues to sit in judgment on him, their president. The council, however, persisted, and publicly proclaimed their confidence in Nuncomar. The latter, emboldened by success, began to produce fresh accusations. The triumph of the council seemed complete: they sent home to England a report full of complaints against Hastings, and confidently expected that he would be recalled.

At this juncture, however, the whole face of affairs was altered by the sudden arrest of Nuncomar, on a charge of forgery committed six years before. After a long trial, he was found guilty and condemned to death by the chief-justice, Sir Elijah Impey, an old school-fellow of Hastings at Westminster. The downfall of his accuser came at so opportune a moment for Hastings, that it has been very generally believed by his opponents that Nuncomar's death was the result of a conspiracy

between the governor-general and his chief-justice. But there is no real proof of this. Hastings may have considered himself justified in ridding himself of a dangerous foe by helping on the prosecution; but to say that he invented the charge, and conspired with Impey to commit a judicial murder, is as unjust as it is false.

In 1778 Hastings was in great need of money, both to satisfy the demands of the Company and to carry on the war which had just broken out with France. In his embarrassment he determined to exact an extraordinary war subsidy, and accordingly demanded from Chait Sing, Raja of Benares, a contribution of £50,000, in addition to his ordinary tribute. This was paid for the first year, but when the governor-general renewed the demand in the following year, the Raja delayed payment. Hastings then raised his demands, intending, if they were refused, to punish the Raja by confiscating his dominions. Chait Sing offered to pay a portion of the money, but Hastings would have all or none, and went to Benares to carry out his intentions.

The Raja received Hastings with every mark of respect, but was still unwilling to pay the immense sum required. He was therefore immediately placed under arrest, and two companies of sepoy were set to guard him. As might have been expected, the people of Benares resented the indignity put upon their sovereign, and a rising took place. The sepoy who were guarding Chait Sing had brought no ammunition, and so were easily overpowered and massacred. The Raja escaped during the confusion through a gate opening on to the river, and let himself down the steep bank into a boat by tying together the turbans of his attendants, and so crossed to the opposite bank of the river. Thence he

sent overtures of peace to Hastings, and apologies for what had happened; but the latter, despite the perilous position into which his over-confidence had led him, took no notice of the Raja's offers, and with great presence of mind set about extricating himself from his dangers.

His first care was to inform his friends of the state of affairs, and to ask for reinforcements, for he had less than fifty men with him. It was no easy matter for messengers to carry news in safety through the enemy's forces; but Hastings was equal to the occasion. The natives of India were accustomed to wear large golden earrings. When travelling, however, these were taken out so as not to put temptation in the way of robbers, and in their place a roll of paper was inserted, in order to prevent the hole from closing up. Hastings ingeniously made use of this custom to send his messages.

Before the much-needed help arrived, the news of the Benares insurrection had spread abroad, and the whole country round was in arms, threatening to drive the English from the land. But by prompt and decisive action the insurrection was put down. Major Popham routed the Raja's forces and captured his strongholds. Chait Sing fled from his country never to return, and his estates were declared forfeited to the English.

XXXVI.—WARREN HASTINGS (3). 1732-1818.

Hastings had other work to do besides extorting money from native chiefs in order to enrich the Company and save it from failure. He had to fight the warlike and piratical Marathas (Mahrattas), who ruled in Central and Western India. One of his officers, Captain Bruce,

with a few sepoys and twenty English soldiers, surprised in the night the rock fortress of Gwalior, and captured without loss one of their strongest places. In the next year, 1781, the Marathas were defeated in battle, and though not crushed, they readily made peace on terms favourable to the English and to English trade.

Meanwhile a more powerful foe, Hyder Ali, the ruler of Mysore, had been leading his wild horsemen into the plains of the Carnatic. With him came French officers, only too ready to assist in crushing the English at Madras, who indeed made but a feeble resistance. British rule in Southern India seemed to be coming to an end. England herself was engaged in the long war with the American colonies, and her fleets scarcely dared to encounter the united navies of France and Spain, which were sailing in triumph up the Channel. Fortunately there were two men in India, Hastings and Coote, whom no reverses could daunt. Hastings sharpened the sword, and Coote handled it on the field with such vigour that Hyder Ali was defeated again and again. After Hyder's death, his son, Tipu (Tippoo), continued the war.

Tipu was encouraged by the news of Coote's death and by the aid and promises of the French, who could at this moment have again established themselves in India, had they made the best use of their opportunities, and had they taken advantage of the temporary weakness of the English navy to throw men and arms into the Carnatic. Instead of doing so they despatched men and arms to America, and they gained nothing but the satisfaction of having helped English colonies to free themselves from the rule of England. All their hopes of gaining more were crushed by the victory of Rodney in

the West Indies. Their ally, Tipu, left to himself, was forced to sue for peace in 1784.

In the next year Warren Hastings returned to England, and was well received by the king and by the Company. He confidently expected a peerage and a pension as a reward for his great services, but very different was the treatment he actually received. His enemies, chief among whom were Burke and his old colleague Philip Francis, determined to call him to account for his cruelty and oppression. The House of Commons condemned his conduct, and voted for his impeachment, that is, for his trial before the House of Lords with themselves as his accusers. The prosecution was entrusted to Burke, Fox, and Sheridan, three of the greatest orators the English Parliament has produced, and in February, 1788, Hastings was summoned to Westminster Hall to defend himself against the charges brought against him. He was accused of having illegally sold British troops to the Vizier of Oudh, of having judicially murdered Nuncomar, and of having extorted money from native rulers.

No trial had ever before aroused such wide-spread interest. The fame of the accusers and the high position and achievements of the accused all served to intensify the interest taken in the case. Westminster Hall was crowded daily; people flocked thither as to a play, and were content to pay as much as fifty guineas for a single seat. But when the great opening orations had been made, and the court proceeded to discuss intricate matters of detail, the public interest waned, and the trial ceased to be an attraction. However, it dragged on slowly till 1795, when at last the verdict was given, and Hastings was acquitted. But he was a ruined man, and was obliged to petition the East India Company for

pecuniary assistance. After much discussion an annuity of £4000 a year was settled upon him, and he retired to Daylesford, where he spent the last twenty-four years of his life as a country gentleman.

We owe our Indian Empire in great measure to the skill and energy of Hastings. His rule covered a period in which Britain passed through a dangerous crisis. Our American colonies seceded from us; and while in almost every part of the world we were losing territory, in India we added largely to our possessions, and firmly secured what we already held. If in achieving this Hastings was guilty of crimes, we must remember, in mitigation of them, the difficulties of his position. Sent out as a mere lad without experience, to a country where political morality was unknown, thwarted at every turn by a factious council, and hampered by lack of money, it is no wonder that he was led to commit acts of tyranny. It is just to add that the money extorted from his victims was utilized not to serve his own ends, but to consolidate the power of the British in India.

XXXVII.—LORD CORNWALLIS (1786-1793).

Lord Cornwallis succeeded Warren Hastings as Governor-general of India. He went out with far greater powers than his unfortunate predecessor had possessed. He was, in fact, the political and military ruler of British India, subject only to the control of the English government, for Pitt's India Bill of 1784 had obliged the Company to confine its attention mainly to commerce. The importance of this change was not realized by the independent native rulers, who were

unaware that they would henceforth have to contend not only with the forces of the Company but with those of the Empire. Of these rulers the most formidable was Tipu, Sultan of Mysore, who had already in Hastings' time made war against the English. His acts of hostility once more brought about a collision.

Tipu was a man of some education and culture. He had devoted a considerable time to scientific and literary studies, and he had a fine library of 12,000 volumes, half of which have since been removed to Whitehall and half to Calcutta. He was possessed of fabulous wealth; his property in cash, jewels, and other valuables being estimated at £80,000,000. But it is not as a millionaire nor as a man of learning that Tipu is famous, but as a soldier who was a thorn in the side of English statesmen and English generals for fifteen years. He was the most powerful native ruler in India, and possessed a military genius of no mean order. In religion he was a stern Mohammedan, and persecuted Hindus and Christians with equal bitterness. He hated the English, and made the French his tools. Honour was in Tipu an unknown quantity; he broke a treaty with as little compunction as he tortured a prisoner of war. In his lifetime he was execrated by all, and no one was sorry when he died.

His invasion of the territories of an ally of the Company afforded a pretext for war, of which Cornwallis was not sorry to avail himself. He followed the usual plan of playing off one native ruler against another, and made alliances with the Nizam of Hyderabad and the Peshwa of the Marathas. The first campaign under General Medows was indecisive, and in 1791 Cornwallis assumed the command in person. Marching from Madras he made straight for Mysore, and captured the fortress of Ban-

galore. There is nothing like success to heat the loyalty of an Oriental chief, and no sooner did the Nizam hear of the fall of Bangalore than his cavalry came riding through the fertile country of Northern Mysore, on magnificent chargers and in glittering uniforms, to join their English ally. Although the two forces moved forward towards Seringapatam, the sultan's capital, they were obliged to retreat for want of provisions. On the retreat they were joined by the Marathas, who had an abundance of provisions, and might, had they arrived in proper time, have entirely altered the character of the campaign. As it was, it ended almost as indecisively as the first.

In the following year, 1792, Cornwallis determined to strike a decisive blow. Everything that forethought and an intimate knowledge of his requirements could suggest was done to ensure success. There was to be no bungling this time, no falling short of provisions, no relying on allies who might again fail him in the hour of need. With a mixed army of English and Indians he marched against Tipu, who, not daring to risk a battle, fell back on a strong position under the walls of Seringapatam. There he threw up three lines of earth-works under the guns of the fortress and awaited the onslaught. Joined by Abercromby, Cornwallis determined to storm the defences. He put himself at the head of his troops and ordered the advance. British pluck and dash did the rest. Tipu's soldiers were swept away like chaff before the wind, and the position was carried at the bayonet's point.

Preparations were now made to besiege the fortress-city itself, and beard the "Tiger of Mysore" in his den. But the Tiger was in no mood for fighting. His losses



The Storming of Seringapatam by the British.

were heavy, and some of his troops were deserting him. There was nothing for it but to submit with what grace he could. He agreed to cede half his territories, pay a war indemnity of £3,000,000, and give up his two sons as hostages. Tipu's pride was thus humbled and his power crippled; but he was not crushed. He lived to pit himself once more against the conquering race.

The interest of Cornwallis's administration, however, is by no means confined to the battle-field. His first thought was not of conquest, annexation, or war, but of internal reform. His two great reforms had to do with the collection of the land revenue and the administration of justice in Bengal. When the Company acquired territory, it acquired at the same time the right to receive certain payments from the cultivators of the soil. Hitherto these payments had been collected for the native rulers by men called Zamindars, who habitually extorted as much money as they could, and handed over as little as they could to their masters. The difference between what they extorted and what they handed over went into their own pockets.

Cornwallis did not abolish this system of rent-collection, he reformed it. He made the Zamindars landed proprietors of the districts in which they had formerly been rent-collectors. In return the Zamindars were to pay the Company a certain fixed rent, which was never to be increased. Whatever may be thought of the Zamindar system, as it is called, there can be no doubt about the benefit conferred on the country by Cornwallis's judicial reforms. Before the time of Warren Hastings the administration of justice had been entirely in the hands of natives, Zamindars, and other officials, and was very corrupt. Warren Hastings greatly improved matters by

transferring the judicial powers to the English collectors to whom the Zamindars paid the revenue. Cornwallis went a step further. He created a class of English magistrates and judges whose sole duty it was to administer justice throughout the Presidency of Bengal.

In 1793 Cornwallis returned to England, and was succeeded as Governor-general by Sir John Shore. In 1805 he again became Governor-general, but died in the same year shortly after resuming office.

XXXVIII.—THE FALL OF THE MARATHAS (MAHRATTAS) (1802–1818).

The Marathas were a native Hindu race, living a lawless roving life amid the mountains and forests of central Hindustan. They were the pest and scourge of its peaceful villages. Swooping down from their mountain strongholds they carried fire and sword into the fertile plains, leaving desolation and ruin in their wake. Until the middle of the seventeenth century they rendered some sort of allegiance to the Sultans of Bijapur. Then the hero of their race arose, Sivagi, who cast off the yoke of the sultan, established the Maratha empire, and crowned himself the first king (1674). He died, and as time went on the real power in the state fell from the hands of his incompetent successors into those of their prime ministers or "Peshwas".

Soon the empire lost its unity, and was split up into several dependent states, whose chiefs were variously styled Sindhia, Holkar, the Bhonsla, and the Gaekwar, and whose dependence on the Peshwa was little more than nominal. In the time of Clive these Maratha states had

developed into a strong and aggressive power. They were temporarily repressed by Hastings, but during the governorship of the Marquis Wellesley they again became strong enough to be a serious menace to British supremacy in India.

At length war broke out in 1802. Sindhia and the Bhonsla gathered together an army of 100,000, and prepared to strike a decisive blow. They were opposed by General Lake, who marched to Delhi, and by the governor's brother, General Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, who met the combined forces of Sindhia and the Bhonsla at Assaye. The enemy's artillery mowed down his regiments and for a moment defeat seemed certain. There was but one thing to be done, that which has over and over again saved English armies from destruction in Indian warfare, and Wellesley did it. He gave the order to charge with the bayonet. The Marathas could not face the steel; they wavered, broke, fled; and ere the sun had set Wellesley had won a glorious, though costly, victory.

Meanwhile Lake had not been idle. He gained possession of Delhi, reduced Agra, and won the famous battle of Laswari. The enemy fought with dogged courage, but could not stand before the charges of Lake's soldiers. Seventeen battalions, the flower of Sindhia's army, were well-nigh annihilated, his loss being estimated at 7000, whilst the English dead and wounded numbered only 824. The defeat of the Bhonsla at Argaum completed the discomfiture of the two chiefs, and compelled them to sign treaties by which they made important territorial concessions.

Holkar was now the only Maratha ruler who remained independent, and he determined to make a last desperate

effort to check the tide of British conquest. Avoiding a battle in the open field, he sought to wear out Lake's



Marathas on a Raiding Expedition.

troops by harassing their flanks and cutting off supplies. His stronghold of Rampura fell into the hands of his

foes, and he was pursued by Monson with a few regiments of sepoys and 4000 horsemen. Monson did not take sufficient supplies with him; he was hampered by native camp-followers, and the roads were rendered impassable by rain and mud. He decided to retreat, and this was Holkar's opportunity. The fierce Maratha cavalry accompanied the retreating column, cutting down stragglers and charging at unexpected moments upon the wearied and dejected sepoys, who were at last forced to turn and stand at bay. They were shot down, and few escaped to tell the tale. Holkar's success was short-lived; he was attacked by Lake and driven to take refuge in the Punjab.

Smitten by the "craven fears of being great" the authorities in England did not permit Lord Wellesley to take advantage of his victories. They were afraid to assume the responsibility of governing the vast territory that had just been won, and left the Marathas to devastate and plunder Central India as of old. During the governorship of the Marquis of Hastings war again broke out. The Peshwa advanced to attack the English garrison at Kirki, near Poona. Elphinstone and his little band, quitting the fort, posted themselves behind a deep morass. Into this the Maratha horsemen charged, riding over each other as they sank in the mud. They were shot down, and the Peshwa with the rest of his army fled. Shortly afterwards he surprised and surrounded a detached British regiment of about eight hundred men, but in spite of his army of 30,000, was unable to storm the village in which the British had intrenched themselves. At last, giving up the attempt, he retired, and was shortly afterwards pursued and forced to submit.

Apa Sahib, who had become Bhonsla by strangling

his idiot cousin, was the last of the Maratha princes to hold out against the British. With an army of 24,000 he assailed the government forces near Nagpur. His defeat was chiefly due to the courage of Captain Fitzgerald, who, after begging in vain to be allowed to charge the enemy, disobeyed orders, and leading his cavalry down the hill completely routed the Marathas and their fierce allies. The Bhonsla was soon afterwards forced to surrender. Central India passed under British rule, and at last began to enjoy the blessings of peace.

XXXIX.—SIR CHARLES NAPIER (1841–1851).

When Sir Charles Napier, at the age of sixty, set out for India in 1841, the work upon which his fame most securely rests was still to be done. His destination was Sind. This province, now included under the presidency of Bombay, is a large tract of country stretching up both sides of the Indus for some four hundred miles from its mouths. It was ruled in Napier's time by the Amirs or Princes of Sind.

These Amirs had watched with no little satisfaction the terrible disaster to British arms in Afghanistan, where about fourteen thousand men had been annihilated while trying to make good their retreat from that country by way of the Khyber Pass. The invasion of Afghanistan is only important for us now as explaining the dangerously unsettled state of the countries which lay between our Indian frontier and Afghanistan. Sind was one of these countries, and in it the signs of discontent were so evident that Napier was sent to restore order, though not necessarily by annexation.

In the first days of 1843 he started with a comparatively small force, and with wonderful speed marched for nearly a month through the dreary, sandy wilderness of the Sindian desert, and came upon his



Lieut.-General Sir Charles Napier.

enemy at a little place named Meanee, just north of Hyderabad. The Sindians had collected an army 20,000 strong, and reinforcements were flocking in every day, while Napier had but 2200 men. He at once attacked the enemy, who was posted in a strong position, and a desperate hand-to-hand conflict of three hours' duration ensued.

Napier's "thin red line" at last, but only at last, turned the determined host in front of it into a wavering mass, then into a flying mob, and a cavalry charge on the flank completed the rout. Countless tales of heroism are told. Leaders, seeing their men waver, went to meet certain death, and their example inspired their followers

with a courage that rendered them invincible. The old general himself fought like a lion, and was only saved by the devoted zeal of those watching over him.

The victory of Meanee, the most glorious of Napier's deeds, brought as its fruit the self-surrender of six Sindian princes and the handing over of Hyderabad into English hands; and far more than this, it enabled Napier to send, with little exaggeration, his famous message, "Peccavi", or "I have sinned" (Sind); for it needed only one more desperate conflict with the Lion of Mirpur to make the English undisputed masters of the valley of the Indus.

And now from deeds of war Napier turned to the peaceful administration of the province he had won, and to the task of raising its inhabitants to a higher sphere of civilization. Incessantly he laboured, and as incessantly he met with failure, and want of support, and even open hostility from the home authorities and the East India Company's directors. At length, wearied out, though still undaunted, he came back to England in 1847, but only to be sent back to India two years later; sent out this time with full powers as commander-in-chief to retrieve the reverse sustained by British arms at the hands of the Sikhs in the Punjab. On hearing of this reverse, the Duke of Wellington said to Napier, "If you don't go, I must". And so he went, and thus is genius always recognized and waited on—in the hour of danger.

Happily, this hour of danger was a short one, for before the new commander-in-chief arrived in India the Sikhs had been completely routed by Lord Gough, and the war was over. Though in a sense disappointed that he was to see no fresh service, Napier now took up his quarters at Simla, and began that year of unremitting

toil, rewarded by nothing but abuse, which ended in his recall from India. During this year he strove to bring reform into our Indian army and the whole military department, and endeavoured by every means in his power to awaken a general sense of the pressing need for reform in every branch of the East India Company's government. To this day he remains to us the most striking prophet of the great mutiny of 1857.

But his cry of warning fell on deaf ears, and he returned to England in 1851 almost heart-broken, and died two years later. "More of a hero than any modern I have seen for a long time", were Carlyle's words of him; "Erected by public subscription, the most numerous subscribers being private soldiers", says the inscription on his statue in Trafalgar Square. Even those who most realize the failure of Napier's life will allow these two tributes, from two such different sources, to bear witness to its greatness.

XL.—LORD DALHOUSIE AND THE SIKHS (1845-1856).

A glance at the papers during the closing months of 1897 will have shown that the Sikhs are splendid fighters. It may be taken for granted that they fought no less fiercely and stubbornly for their own country, the Punjab, against us as they now do for us. The only matter for surprise is the rapidity with which they have been changed from savage and bitter enemies into loyal friends and devoted fellow-subjects.

To understand the Sikh outbreak, we must recollect that a short time before our armies had sustained a

terrible reverse in Afghanistan at the hands of Dost Muhammad's soldiers, who had exterminated the English army of occupation and 10,000 camp-followers, only one man escaping to tell the mournful tale. This reverse had awakened in the minds of the warlike Sikhs a certain contempt for the British, and they believed themselves quite capable of destroying British power in India.

The chief cause of the war that ensued must, however, be sought in the state of affairs that prevailed in the Sikh kingdom itself. This kingdom had been founded by Ranjit Singh, who had based his power on a devoted and excellently drilled army of 125,000 men, and with him the British



Lord Dalhousie.

had wisely made a treaty of peace, which was kept till his death in 1839. No sooner did the army cease to feel the strong hand of Ranjit Singh than it became unruly. The commander-in-chief and the ambitious minister Lal Singh, fearing that its revolutionary energy might endanger their own safety, determined to keep it out of mischief by leading it to attack and plunder the British states.

About 100,000 Sikh warriors crossed the Sutlej in 1845. They were met by Sir H. Hardinge and Sir

H. Gough, and after four fierce battles driven back over the river. In the last of these, at Sobraon, the English won a victory that cost them 2000 men slain and wounded. The Sikhs suffered far heavier losses, and were glad to come to terms. They paid a million and a half sterling for their excursion into British territory, and were also forced to add to this territory a portion of their own country.

In 1848 James Ramsay, Earl of Dalhousie, arrived at Calcutta as Governor-general, and he is justly held to be the greatest ruler that India has seen during this century. It was he who created the united Indian Empire of to-day. He added to it a quarter of a million of square miles, extending its borders on the one side to China, and on the other side to the spheres of Russian influence. He believed that India would be freed from anarchy and misrule only when all its warring states had been welded together by the firm hand and civilizing influence of Great Britain. He adopted, therefore, a vigorous policy of annexation and conquest. Where persuasion failed, he did not scruple to use force for the benefit of the Indian peoples, which had long suffered from the vices and follies of their corrupt and tyrannical rulers.

Among the nations unwilling to listen to persuasion were the Sikhs. They had not forgotten their defeat and their losses, and they had, moreover, their own ideas on the subject of the future government of India. These ideas were not those of Lord Dalhousie, and when the Sikhs rose in arms he delivered himself of the following emphatic statement: "Unwarned by precedent, uninfluenced by example, the Sikh nation has called for war, and on my word, sirs, they shall have it with a vengeance". The fiery Gough was sent to bring the nation

of the Sikhs to its senses, and in November, 1848, he met its hosts at Chilianwala.

The English commander, finding the enemy in a strongly-intrenched position, thought it better to postpone the attack till the following morning, and to spend the interval in making himself acquainted with the ground. A forward movement of the Sikh artillery, which opened fire upon his camp, forced him to begin the battle at once. The English artillery was inferior in strength to that of the Sikhs, mistakes were made by some of the subordinate commanding officers, a whole British regiment was seized with panic and fled, and yet in spite of all this Lord Gough succeeded in driving the enemy from their position with great loss. Next day a heavy rainfall rendered the roads impassable, the general was not able to follow up his advantage, and the Sikhs had time to recover and intrench themselves as strongly as before. The British lost 2338 men in killed and wounded out of 14,000, and the victory was yet to be won.

When the news of this unsuccessful battle reached England there was a general outcry. All the blame was laid upon Lord Gough, and the veteran Sir Charles Napier, as already stated in a previous chapter, was sent out to relieve him of the command. Before he could arrive at the seat of war, Lord Gough, reinforced with men and guns, had utterly defeated the Sikhs at Gujerat, thus proving that the gentlemen at home had been somewhat too hasty in passing judgment upon his military skill. He suffered, and his memory still suffers, from what Wolfe called "the censure and reproach of an ignorant populace". If he failed to win an almost impossible victory at Chilianwala, he must nevertheless be remembered as the man who won for us the Punjab.

The conquest of this territory was followed by its annexation. Under the wise and careful administration of the brothers Lawrence, the Punjab became one of the most flourishing states in India, and its brave inhabitants, the Sikhs, now supply our native Indian army with its finest soldiers. The development of the Punjab was but a part of Lord Dalhousie's great work. He is responsible for the construction of the first Indian railway and the beginnings of the present magnificent railway system. He encouraged trade, improved the harbours, built lighthouses, bettered the means of communication by his postal reforms, founded a system of education for the Indian people, and by these peaceful measures sought to unite more closely the various parts of the great empire that the sword had won. In 1858 the "glorious little man", grieving for the loss of his daughter, and worn out by incessant toil, was obliged to resign. Old before his time, he died two years later at the age of forty-nine, leaving behind a name that stands high in the roll of our great Indian statesmen.

XLI.—THE INDIAN MUTINY (1857–1858).

At Meerut, on the 9th of May, 1857, eighty-five native troopers were degraded and imprisoned for disobeying orders. Next day, Sunday, it was known that fury and indignation reigned in the quarters occupied by the Indian regiments. It was also known that throughout India the spirit of revolt had been slowly gathering force, and that it might declare itself at any moment. Still the English at Meerut seemed all unconscious of the coming storm. A colonel of one of the native regiments made an



Sir John Lawrence.



Sir Henry Havelock.



Sir Colin Campbell.



Sir J. E. W. Inglis.

Heroes of the Indian Mutiny.

attempt to quiet the excitement; he was received with yells and riddled with bullets. The residents on their way to church beheld smoke and flames rising above the outlying bungalows of the Europeans. They heard fierce cries and wails of agony, and they understood that the carnage had begun. They themselves were shot down as they fled.

The carnage went on through the night. The English troops, commanded by incompetent officers, did little or nothing to stay the hands of the fierce mutineers and the still more fierce rabble that from eve till dawn slew and burnt and plundered. Next morning the native cavalry, unopposed and unpunished, swept along the road to Delhi, and, halting before the palace of the senile descendant of the ancient Moguls, hailed him as Emperor of India. The English in Delhi were butchered with revolting cruelty. Those that escaped fled into the open fields, and not many lived to tell the tale of their sufferings. One piece of news they brought,—that the powder-magazine in the city they had left had not fallen into the hands of the rebels. Lieutenant Willoughby and the eight men who guarded it against countless assailants ended the fight by blowing it up, and with it hundreds of their foes. Willoughby and three of his men escaped, but the rest perished.

India had been left with but 39,000 British troops, and they found themselves suddenly called upon to cope with about 200,000 native soldiers, trained by English officers. 6500 men pushed on to Delhi, beat back a rebel army that opposed them, and took up their position on the famous ridge which rises close to the city walls. These walls were twelve feet thick, heavily armed and defended by 30,000 sepoy. They were too strong to be attacked, and so the small English army intrenched itself

and waited for the reinforcements that were soon to arrive from England and elsewhere. Meanwhile the native troops, encouraged by the success of the Meerut and Delhi mutineers, were revolting on all sides.

At Cawnpore, Nana Sahib, a prince of the Marathas, remembering that the pension given to his father by the government had been refused to him, organized an attack on the English garrison. Sir Hugh Wheeler, the commander, threw up hastily a mud wall round two bungalows, gathered inside it 400 English women and children, and prepared to defend them with 465 soldiers against Nana Sahib's army of 3000. For twenty-one days they fought, stormed at with shot and red-hot cannon-balls, hungering and thirsting, but still unconquered. At last Nana Sahib agreed to let them march out and make their way by river to Allahabad. He himself provided the boats, but no sooner were his unsuspecting victims safely in them than a bugle sounded from the bank. Next minute the straw-thatched roofs of the boats were set on fire by the native oarsmen, who plunged into the river. The blazing wrecks became targets for countless bullets. Many of their miserable occupants swam to the bank, and were hacked to bits. Four men alone escaped, and the surviving women were spared for the moment.

Havelock, the hero of a hundred fights and one of the noblest soldiers that ever fought under the English flag, had been sent to effect the relief of Cawnpore. The news of the massacre spurred his weary and sun-smitten men to hurry forward, in the hope of saving the women and children still living. They met Nana Sahib with 5000 rebels, they cast him from their path and entered the city. He did not await their coming, and left them the women and children. They sought them, and found

them dead, mutilated, and naked in the well of Cawnpore.

Havelock's task was not finished. In Lucknow a few hundred Europeans were holding out against 60,000 rebels. Outram joined Havelock, and with an army of about 3000 British and Sikhs marched to the rescue. They reached the city, pushed on through narrow streets of death, where from house-top and window a withering fire was poured down upon them; fought their way to the Residency, and joined hands with the garrison. Outram on his great charger, and laying about him with his gold-headed malacca cane, for he scorned to use a sword, was the first to enter. The besieged were saved from the fate of those at Cawnpore, but the force under Outram and Havelock was not strong enough to beat off the enemy. It also was shut in, and waited and fought till the arrival of Sir Colin Campbell.

Meanwhile Delhi had fallen into the hands of the English. For a long time their general had hesitated to attack its strong walls, but one day John Nicholson, the bravest of the brave, followed by veteran bands of Sikhs who worshipped the ground he trode upon, came down from the north. Spurning all thoughts of delay he himself, towering above friend and foe, led his column through a breach into the streets of Delhi, there to meet his death. Two other columns entered the devoted town, and the rebel sepoys were made to feel the wrath of the avengers.

The fall of Delhi was followed by the relief of the garrison at Lucknow. Sir Colin Campbell and his men fought their way inch by inch through the suburbs and on to the Residency. Then followed the famous meeting between him, Outram, and Havelock. Within twenty-

four hours, in the dead of night, rescuers and rescued marched silently out of the city in such perfect order that the enemy was completely deceived, and continued to fire next morning upon the deserted posts. Sir Colin Campbell shortly afterwards inflicted a crushing defeat upon Nana Sahib, who, after some months' wandering, fled to the jungles of Nepal, and was never heard of again. The capture of Lucknow, and the brilliant campaign of Sir Hugh Rose in Central India, ended the Indian Mutiny in 1858, and it was the last attempt made to overthrow the rule of the British.

XLII.—CONQUEST OF BURMA (1822-1886).

British Burma is separated from Hindustan by the Bay of Bengal, and extends eastward to the Chinese frontier. It forms what was once known as the Burmese Empire. Burma is a land of sun and rain: its climate is very typical of its history. Though some of its pages are aglow with sunny pictures of the simple pastoral life of a joyous people, who delighted in music, and dancing, and revelry, and whose only care was for their cattle and waving fields of grain, there are others telling us of times when the land was crushed beneath the heel of ruthless invaders from China or Siam or Pegu, when it became the scene of cruel wars and terrible massacres; when the people were butchered like sheep in the shambles and the rivers ran with blood.

The Burmese managed to hold their own, however, until, in the middle of the eighteenth century, under the guiding hand of the great warrior king, Alompra the Hunter, the race entered upon its career of conquest, and

subdued all the petty states by which it was surrounded. It had previously occupied only the valley of the Upper Irawadi. Alompra conquered Pegu: his son, Bhodau Phra—another Burmese hero—annexed Arakan, Martaban, and Tenasserim. Finally, in 1822, by the



conquest of Assam, the Burmese Empire was extended to the frontiers of India. It had reached the summit of its glory: now its star began to wane.

It was shortly after the conquest of Assam that the first conflict between the British and the Burmese took place. Hostilities were brought about by the Burmese general, Bandula, who, elated by the success of his arms in Assam, deliberately invaded British territory and

demanded the cession of Bengal. Lord Amherst's answer was a declaration of war. He determined to act on the offensive and strike at the heart of the Burmese Empire. An expedition was accordingly equipped, consisting of 5000 men under Sir Archibald Campbell, who was to ascend the river Irawadi and capture Rangoon, the principal port and trading town of the country. On the arrival of the expedition at Rangoon, the governor and all the inhabitants deserted the city, and retired to the neighbouring forests and jungle; whilst the British took up their quarters in a magnificent temple on the outskirts of Rangoon, known as the Golden Pagoda.

The Burmese seldom met their enemy in the open field: they employed a system of warfare peculiarly their own—the system of stockades. This consisted in throwing up parapets of earth, behind which they ensconced themselves in little caves dug in the freshly-turned soil. When night came on, those in front would advance and construct another line of stockades, their places being taken by troops from the rear, and so they would close in, like an army of moles, upon their foes.

From May to December in 1824, a series of engagements took place in front of Rangoon, in which the advantage always lay with the invading force. In the first a dash was made for the stockades by the British. Clambering over them pell-mell they leaped down, bayonet in hand, upon the confused and struggling mass of Burmese warriors, and worked terrible havoc among them. Three hundred men were left dead upon the field, the British only losing one officer and two of the rank and file. Another battle was fought at Kemmendale, a village on the bank of the river, where the enemy had formed a strongly stockaded post. The position was

again carried by storm, a land force of 3000 men being supported by gun-boats on the river. The Burmese fled into the jungle, leaving behind them 150 dead, among whom lay their aged chief with his gilt umbrella and his sword beside him.

The Lord of the White Elephant and Golden Foot—as the Burmese monarch was called—began at last to feel anxious, and despatched his most famous generals to the seat of war “to attack and drive the British at once into the sea”. But all to no purpose: fire-eating chiefs, astrologers, “Invulnerables”, ministers of state, royal princes, all failed to make any impression on the Golden Pagoda; and at last the king sent for his favourite Bandula, the greatest general of all, who with 60,000 fighting men advanced through the thick forests surrounding Rangoon, and made several desperate attempts to recover the city. But at every point they were beaten and driven back into the jungle with appalling loss of life. Out of 60,000 men, but 25,000 remained to tell the tale of terror. Sir A. Campbell now advanced to Ava, and presently the whole country between the capital and Rangoon was in his hands. This brought the Golden Foot to his senses, and the Treaty of Yandabo, by which the territories of Assam, Arakan, and Tenasserim were ceded to the British government, brought the First Burmese War to a close.

The Second Burmese War broke out in 1852, in consequence of the cruel treatment of British merchants at Rangoon by Burmese officials. The king was remonstrated with, but refused satisfaction. An expedition was thereupon despatched from Madras to operate with a naval force in the Irawadi valley. The Great Pagoda was carried by storm and Rangoon captured. The result

of the war was that Pegu, the most valuable part of the Burmese Empire, was annexed. This left the Monarch of the Golden Foot in possession of Upper Burma only, whilst all the country within a hundred miles or more of the coast, from Assam to the point of Tenasserim, became part of the British Empire.

Things remained in this state until the year 1886, when the outrageous behaviour of King Theebaw gave rise to the Third Burmese War. A small force, under General Prendergast, moved up the Irawadi and captured Mandalay. King Theebaw was then deposed and Upper Burma annexed. Thus in sixty years from the commencement of hostilities the whole of Burma became incorporated with the British Empire, and is now one of the most prosperous of the provinces of India.

XLIII.—LORD ROBERTS (1832–1897) AND THE N.W. FRONTIER.

Lord Roberts, the son of Sir Abraham Roberts, was born in India (1832). He served through the Indian Mutiny, and was awarded the Victoria Cross for an act of signal bravery. In 1868 he took part in the Abyssinian war, and in 1875 was made Quarter-master-general in India. His chance of earning greater distinction came when war broke out with the Afghans in 1878. Sher Ali, the Afghan Amir, then refused to receive British envoys at Cabul. On the other hand, he saw fit to welcome an embassy from the Czar of Russia, and so Lord Beaconsfield determined to force him to show like respect to the British representative. Sher Ali was equally determined to do nothing of the sort.

In order to convince him of the error of his ways, the government of India sent an army which drove him out of his kingdom. His son, Yakub Khan, was put to reign in his stead, and he agreed to conduct his foreign policy in accordance with British interests.

These high-handed proceedings on the part of the



Field-marshal Lord Roberts. (From a photograph by Walery.)

Indian government are to be explained by the view it took of the military importance of Afghanistan. This country stands as a buffer-state between the possessions of Great Britain and Russia, and it serves to keep a possible enemy at a safe distance from the North-west Indian frontier. The British, on this account, considered their supremacy in Afghanistan to be a matter of vital importance. When, therefore, Yakub Khan, unmindful

of his promises, and regardless of the subsidy of £60,000 that had been granted him, permitted the massacre of the English envoy and his escort, it was felt that the time had come to make him understand once and for all the danger of refusing to accept the friendship of Great Britain. Sir Frederick Roberts, who had distinguished himself in the previous campaign against Sher Ali, was sent with an army to avenge the massacre and dictate terms at Cabul.

It was not long before the British again entered Cabul. Yakub Khan was sent to India, and many persons proved guilty of having taken part in the massacre of the envoy and his escort were executed. The Afghans were, however, not yet beaten, and, urged on by their fanatical priests, continued the war with vigour. At Ghazni they were defeated by General Stewart in the month of March, 1880. Under the leadership of Ayub Khan, another son of Sher Ali, they again took the field, and about fifty miles from Kandahar attacked and almost annihilated a British detachment of 2500 Europeans and native soldiers. In this unequal fight a hundred officers and men of the "Old Berkshire", the only European regiment present at the battle, held out in a garden against countless foes till they were all shot or cut to bits. The sepoys and the few Englishmen who escaped made their way to Kandahar, which was occupied by a garrison under General Primrose.

Kandahar was besieged by the victorious Afghans, and its brave defenders, both British and native, waited anxiously for news of the advance of General Roberts. He had not been idle, and on August the 8th he left Cabul with 10,000 men and hurried to the rescue. For three weeks nothing was heard of him either in India or

Great Britain. It was known that he was on the march to Kandahar, but that was all. Ayub Khan was better informed; he drew his scattered forces from before the city, and, placing them in a strong position, decided to act upon the defensive. After traversing 318 miles in twenty-three days, General Roberts, followed by his devoted army of Britons, Sikhs, and Ghurkas, marched up to the city, and uniting his forces to those of General Primrose attacked the Afghan position and utterly defeated Ayub Khan. The news of the victory, coming as it did after days of suspense, was received in Britain and India with heart-felt joy and relief. Sir Frederick Roberts became Lord Roberts of Kandahar, and he is one of the most popular figures in Great Britain to-day.

The battle of Kandahar made British influence supreme in Afghanistan, Abdur Rahman became Amir, and his friendship was in 1883 rendered more solid by our undertaking to pay him a welcome subsidy of £120,000 a year. On his side, he agreed to remain true to British interests, and so far (1897) he has kept his word. His position is a delicate and difficult one, for his dominions are hemmed in on both sides by the territory of two powerful neighbours, the British and the Russians. He cannot be friends with both, and his sympathy with the former has already exposed him to outrage from the latter. The slaughter of a number of his soldiers at Pendjeh by a Russian force nearly caused a war between Great Britain and the Czar in 1885. Happily a compromise was effected, and a commission was sent out to mark clearly the boundary between Russian and Afghan territory.

The kingdom of Abdur Rahman lies, as we have seen, between the boundaries of Asiatic Russia and the chief passes through the mountain barriers that guard our

North-west Indian frontier. As long as the Afghans remain friendly we shall have stout and useful allies to help us in repelling invasion. Their country is a difficult one to traverse, and their hostility would render the advance of an invading army doubly difficult. Our chief defence, however, lies in the North-west frontier itself, which has been rendered almost impregnable by the military skill of Sir Donald Stewart, Lord Roberts, and Sir Robert Sandeman. The defensive works, which stretch from the mouth of the Indus to Chitral in the north, have cost us much, and their erection and occupation have brought us into frequent collision with the wild and unruly hill-tribes of the border. In 1895 we had to quell a rising of the Chitralese, and in 1897 we were again engaged in a struggle with the Afridis and Mohmands. It is uncertain what will be our future policy with regard to these tribes, but there can be no doubt that in order to ensure the future safety of our Indian Empire no sacrifices can be too great.

XLIV.—INDIA TO-DAY (1898).

Though not so large as Canada or Australia, the Indian Empire could still include within its boundaries all Europe, excluding Russia. It contains a population of 287,000,000, divided into a number of nations speaking different tongues, worshipping different gods, and bound together only by common allegiance to the Empress-queen or *Kaisar-i-Hind*. The mass of the people are sunk in ignorance and superstition. It is reckoned that out of 1000 only 109 men and seven women can read and write. Two hundred million are either engaged in tilling

the soil, or depend for their support upon those thus engaged. The poverty of the agricultural classes is so extreme that the loss of a harvest means ruin and starvation. During the famine of 1876-78 four millions of people perished, and quite recently thousands of lives were only saved by the generous assistance of the British government and people.

Such is the country we have undertaken to rule and protect. We rule it by means of a Viceroy who represents the Queen, and by a Council, of which the members, like the Viceroy, are appointed by the Crown. The Commander-in-chief is a member of the Council. The Viceroy in Council has supreme authority in India, subject to the control of the Secretary of State for India in London. This Secretary of State is always a cabinet minister of high rank; he is assisted also by a council, but in cases of emergency, when it is necessary to act secretly and with despatch, he acts independently. In India the Viceroy has under him a certain number of Governors, Lieutenant-governors, and High Commissioners, whose business it is to rule the large provinces not directly administered by the Viceroy himself.

There are a few native or feudatory states which manage their own internal affairs. Their external relations are under the control of the Viceregal government. They cannot make peace or war, and are only allowed to maintain a limited military force. The local government is in the hands of a staff of officials, British and native, many of whom are appointed after competitive examination in England. Into this service pass several of the most intelligent and able pupils that quit each year our public schools, and they form a body of administrators that cannot be rivalled in any country.

For the defence of the Indian Empire we have a splendid British force of nearly 77,000 men ready to do anything and go anywhere. They are strengthened by an army of 148,000 native soldiers, and among these the warlike and dashing Sikhs, and the muscular, fierce little Ghurkas are surpassed by no soldiers in the world.

In addition to the above, the feudatory states maintain a well-equipped and trained reserve force of about 19,000 men prepared at any moment to fight with the British in defence of the empire. Great pains have been taken to render our Indian army as efficient as possible,

and small as it is compared to the huge military forces of Russia and other European powers, it will not be easily vanquished.

Of the North-west frontier mention has been made in a preceding chapter. On the extreme north, the great snow-clad barrier of the Himalayas protects India from invasion. To the east, our territories meet those of China, France, and Siam. The recent advance of France



A Native Lancer in our Indian Army.

up to the Mekong river has made it necessary for us to see also to the defence of our borders at this point. With possible enemies on the north-west and on the south-east the army we have at our disposal is none too large. The safety of the Indian Empire depends, therefore, to a great extent upon our being able to despatch troops from England through the Suez Canal to Karachi at the mouth of the Indus. If the Suez Canal fell into the hands of an enemy, we should be forced to send our transports by the far longer sea-route round the Cape.

India is not a self-governing colony like Australia and Canada. It is a dependency, ruled by British officials sent from Britain, and defended by a British army recruited in Britain. We are there simply as rulers over a subject race, and the task we have undertaken is no light one. We remain in India, in spite of the great responsibilities incurred, because, though its climate renders the country useless as an outlet for our surplus population, it is to us a great and increasing source of wealth. Of the imports that enter India, seventy-one per cent are sent from Great Britain. This means that thousands of persons in the latter country gain their livelihood by supplying India with what it needs.

We remain in India also because we have a civilizing mission to perform. We found a people badly ruled, sunk in poverty and misery, ground down by tyrants and corrupt officials, and decimated by civil wars. Under our rule the people have, after centuries of strife, come to know the blessings of peace, of just laws, and equitable taxation. Every effort has been made to develop the country, promote its welfare, and increase the wealth of its still poverty-stricken agricultural classes.

The rulers of India have endeavoured to govern the great dependency for its own good, and as to the reality of the benefits they have conferred upon it, there can be no question. They are sure to make mistakes at times, for to deal rightly with an enormous population, split up into numerous religious castes and national divisions, each with its own traditions and prejudices, is a very difficult task. That so far they have performed it well may be judged from the fact that the natives of India are contented to be ruled by us, and it cannot be said that they have any cause to regret being subjects of the *Kaisar-i-Hind*. The greatest calamity that could befall India would be the exodus of its British rulers, who alone are able to keep it united and strong.

XLV.—RAFFLES AND BROOKE.

The island of Singapore, the most important of the Straits Settlements, belonged, at the beginning of the present century, to the Sultan of Johore. It was inhabited by Malays, a race of pirates, who made it the business of their lives to rob and destroy all the vessels they could meet with, either killing the crews or reducing them to slavery. At the time of year when merchant ships, laden with rich cargoes, were wont to pass, the Malays used to issue from the sheltered bays round the coast, and swoop down upon their unsuspecting prey. After having seized everything of value and made prisoners of the crew, it was their habit to burn the vessel in order to escape detection. Then they would sail off to some Malay town, and there dispose of their ill-gotten goods. This nefarious trade was encouraged

by the sultan, who exacted a tribute from the pirates as the price of his favour; and he grew rich upon the thievings of his subjects.

Such practices as these were naturally disastrous to trade, and it was partly with a view to putting down piracy, and partly also in order to deprive the Dutch of their monopoly of trade in that part of the East, that the English determined to form a settlement in Singapore. The work was intrusted to Sir Stamford Raffles, who, in 1819, founded the town of Singapore on the south-east coast of the island. Raffles had already had considerable experience of life in the East; he had been in the service of the East India Company, and had been appointed, in 1805, assistant secretary at Penang, one of the present Straits Settlements. There he proved so capable an administrator that he attracted the attention of Lord Minto, the Governor-general of India, whom he accompanied to Java in 1811, when the English took that island from the Dutch. During the five years in which the English held Java, Raffles was governor of the island. On its restoration to Holland in 1817 he returned to England, and, as we have seen, was soon given other work to do in the East.

Raffles was not slow to recognize the magnificent position of Singapore, situated as it is at the point where all the great water highways of the East and South meet, and he did all in his power to encourage the trade of the island. Vigorous measures were taken to suppress piracy, and Singapore was declared a free port for the ships of all nations, that is to say, merchandise might be landed there without it being necessary to pay custom-duties. By this means merchants were attracted to the island, and a flourishing trade soon sprang up,

which has developed to such an extent that the port of Singapore now possesses the monopoly of the trade between India and the Further East. To it come vessels from every part of the globe, and goods to the value of more than twenty million sterling are yearly imported into the island, while its exports, consisting principally of tin, spices, gutta percha, and coffee, are of nearly the same value.

After a stay of five years Raffles was forced by ill-health to retire to England, but not before he had secured for the English the possession of the whole island. In 1824 the Sultan of Johore agreed to sell Singapore to Great Britain for £13,500 and a life annuity of £5400.

Another instance of the benefits resulting from British rule is furnished by Sarawak, in Borneo, where pirates have been turned into peaceful traders, and a just and firm government has taken the place of oppression and confusion. This great change was brought about by "Rajah Brooke", an Englishman, who, in the course of an adventurous life, became an Eastern sovereign. James Brooke was born in India in 1803, and at the age of sixteen joined the Indian army, and served in the First Burmese War. He greatly distinguished himself, and received the thanks of government, but being severely wounded he was obliged to return to England on leave. He did not again join his regiment, but spent the next few years of his life in travel.

While on a voyage to China in 1830 he saw, for the first time, the islands of the Eastern Archipelago, and was especially struck by the vast island of Borneo, a large part of which was uninhabited. There were a few Dutch settlements on the coast, and a scattered popula-

tion of savages. On his return to England, Brooke made up his mind to go and explore the island, and carry into it British civilization. The death of his father a few years later left him with money enough to purchase a yacht, and get together a capable and trustworthy crew of twenty men.

In 1838 he sailed for the East, and in June anchored at Singapore. There he made inquiries about Borneo, and learned that the native Raja of Sarawak, Muda Hassim, was friendly to the English. To him, therefore, he resolved to pay his first visit. At the time of his arrival the Raja happened to be in difficulties; his subjects were in rebellion against him, and he applied to the English for help, which was readily given. The rebels were soon overcome, and in return for his assistance, Muda Hassim begged Brooke to live at Sarawak and help him to govern his unruly subjects. For the first few years the Englishman's position was very difficult, and his life was often in danger, but by combination of kindness and firmness he succeeded in winning the affection of the oppressed without losing his influence over their oppressors. The natives came to trust him and to admire his courage, so that his power grew daily, until, by a treaty signed in 1842, Muda Hassim resigned the government. The province of Sarawak was handed over to Brooke and his heirs for ever.

The new Raja at once reformed the government, put down piracy, and established freedom of trade. The country prospered greatly, and before his death, in 1868, Kuching, the capital of Sarawak, had increased in population from 1000 to 25,000. The present Raja is Sir Charles Brooke, nephew of the above, and he rules over a flourishing community of 300,000 people.

BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA.

XLVI.—THE DUTCH SETTLEMENT (1648–1794).

The first European settlement in South Africa was the result of an accident. In 1648 a ship named the *Haarlem*, belonging to the Dutch East India Company, was wrecked in Table Bay. The crew and passengers got safely to shore with their cargo, and having built themselves huts, encamped in Table Valley. Here they spent six not unpleasant months. They obtained by barter with the natives as much meat as they required, and from the seeds which they fortunately had with them they grew vegetables in plenty. They were taken home to Europe by a fleet returning from the East, and they carried with them agreeable recollections of their stay in South Africa.

On reaching home the officers of the *Haarlem* presented a statement to the directors of the Company setting forth the fertility of the soil and the friendly disposition of the natives, and the advantages which would result from the establishment of a settlement at the Cape. The petition was favourably received, and it was resolved to form a station without delay. The object of the directors, it should be noticed, was not to found a colony, but merely to provide a place of call for ships passing to and from the East, where refreshments could always be obtained, and where sailors who were ill might be landed and left in hospital to recover. In this way it was thought that great loss of life might be prevented, for the long unbroken voyage to the East, and the want of fresh food and vegetables, frequently brought scurvy on board the Company's ships.

The directors appointed Jan Van Riebeck, formerly a surgeon in their service, governor of the new settlement, and in 1652 he arrived with about a hundred settlers, all of whom were servants of the Company. For the first few months, during the rainy season, the new-comers suffered considerably from want of proper shelter, but they soon began to prosper, and by the end of the first year they were in a flourishing condition. Trade was started with a Hottentot clan, which had brought their flocks and herds south for change of pasture, and in return for tobacco, brass wire, and copper bars, the settlers obtained more than 200 oxen and 600 sheep. A large garden was also planted. There was, therefore, no lack of fresh meat and vegetables for the ships which called at the Cape. A hospital was shortly afterwards built, capable of holding more than two hundred people.

The settlement was on the whole a success, but at the same time it proved a more expensive undertaking than the Company had expected. The directors, therefore, endeavoured to reduce the expenses by offering to their discharged servants grants of land, with all things necessary for the cultivation of them, free of charge for the first three years. In return, the farmers were to provide the Company's fleet with corn and vegetables at a reasonable cost. By this means the number of the Company's servants was greatly reduced, for more than forty settlers accepted their discharge on the terms offered, and became the first European colonists of South Africa in the true sense of the word.

In 1659 came the first of the long series of wars with the natives. The Hottentots, resenting the encroachments of the Dutch upon their pasture-grounds, began to steal their cattle and murder their herdsmen. The fighting

which followed was unimportant, but it led the Dutch to strengthen their position by building a fence through which cattle could not be driven.

No further trouble with the natives occurred until 1673, when the second Hottentot war broke out. A chieftain named Honnema, generally known as the "Black Captain", from his habit of painting himself with soot, after several skirmishes with the settlers retired to the mountains, and there, for four years, defied all efforts made to dislodge him. This war was as unimportant as the last, from the point of view of the numbers engaged, but it had important results, for it led to the establishment of European cattle farmers in South Africa. During the four years' hostilities with the "Black Captain", the colony had been practically blockaded on the land side, and the cattle trade had been completely stopped; hence the settlement was prevented from fulfilling one of its first duties, that of providing fresh meat for passing vessels.

The Company tried, therefore, to tempt the settlers by liberal offers to become cattle farmers, but the prospect of living apart from their fellow-men, subject to the violence of the natives and of the wild beasts, with which the country swarmed, deterred them, and very few accepted the Company's offer. But owing to the energy of Governor Van der Stel, several hundred Dutchmen were induced to emigrate from the home country, and these were followed by a number of persecuted French Protestants, who, by thrift, soon became successful farmers, and gradually pushed their way farther into the interior of the country.

The colony now seemed likely to prosper, but it was hampered at every turn by its connection with the Com-

pany, whose government had by this time become tyrannical. The restrictions imposed upon the trade of the colonists were most galling, and prevented men with capital from emigrating, while the governors, with few exceptions, had an eye to their own interests only; they did nothing to develop the resources of the country, and often exasperated the colonists to such an extent by their greed that petitions were constantly sent to the home government demanding their recall. The downfall of the Company's rule, therefore, at the end of the eighteenth century was an unmixed blessing for South Africa, and was recognized as such by the colonists.

XLVII.—THE COMING OF THE ENGLISH (1795–1814).

In March, 1795, the armies of the French Republic marched into Holland, and drove out its stadtholder or ruler, the Prince of Orange, who made his escape in a fishing-boat to England. The Dutch found that they could get on very well without him, and instead of attempting to withstand the French, welcomed them, accepted them as allies, abolished the office of stadtholder, and created the Batavian Republic. These proceedings eventually led to the seizure of Cape Colony by the English.

The Prince of Orange, not wishing to see this colony become a dependency of the Batavian Republic, consented to a proposal made to despatch British troops to Cape Town, and in order to facilitate the occupation of the place, sent a letter to the colonial authorities ordering them to hand over the castle and forts to the English.

In June the fleets carrying the troops arrived in Simon's Bay. The settlers, not being able to make up their minds either to declare for the Batavian Republic or to obey the order of the prince, made but a feeble resistance. The English took possession of the colony in the name of the stadtholder, and thus the rule of the Dutch East Indian Company was brought to an end. As the Company had done little to promote the welfare of the colonists, its downfall was witnessed without regret.

The British government gave the Dutch to understand that the occupation would not be permanent. They were required to promise fidelity to King George III. "for so long a time as His Majesty shall remain in possession of the colony". He remained in possession seven years, at the end of which time, peace having been concluded between English, French, and Dutch, the Cape was restored, and became in 1803 a dependency of the Batavian Republic.

Less than three months later war again broke out in Europe, and the Dutch at the Cape, on learning that their mother-country had taken up arms against England, made preparations to resist by force a second occupation. It was not, however, till 1806 that an English fleet of sixty-three vessels, carrying about 7000 men under General Baird, sailed into sight. The troops landed without opposition at a spot eighteen miles from Cape Town and marched forward. Not far from the town they were met by the Dutch general, Janssens, who commanded a mixed force of about two thousand men. Among them were German mercenaries, French sailors whose ships had been wrecked off the coast, Malays, and Hottentots. It was one of the strangest armies that English soldiers ever had to encounter.

The battle opened with artillery fire, and a few cannonballs falling among the German mercenaries made them recollect that—

“He that fights and runs away,
May turn and fight another day;
But he that is in battle slain,
Will never rise to fight again”.

The Dutch and their other allies held their ground a little longer and returned the fire with vigour, but they did not care to await the fierce onset of three regiments of Highlanders. Janssens prudently ordered a retreat, and withdrew his forces to a strong position in the mountains. The English continued their march to Cape Town, and it was forced to capitulate. Shortly afterwards Janssens had also to yield to superior numbers, and with several officers, soldiers, officials, and women, were sent back to Holland at the expense of the British government, which again took possession of the Cape on behalf of the Prince of Orange.

The Dutch colonists were far from pleased to find themselves placed without their own consent in the hands of a foreign power. They were warmly attached to the Batavian Republic which had governed them well and justly; and they felt little sympathy for the English as a race, though they themselves were a branch of the same race, and more closely allied in blood to the Anglo-Saxon than any other nation in Europe. The Englishman and the Dutchman were very much alike, but having developed under different conditions of national life, each had acquired certain distinctive habits of thinking and acting which were not likely to improve their relations.

The Boers (Dutch for farmers) remarked that their rulers were greedy for wealth, arrogant, fond of assuming

that everything English was superior to everything else, and therefore regardless of the rights and opinions of others. On their side, the new-comers accused the Boers of bigotry, ignorance, and dirt, and of deliberately attempting, without any sense of shame, to deceive and cheat the tax-collector. This latter fault had taken root in their character during the rule of the Dutch East India Company. Its corrupt officials had never scrupled to fill their own pockets at the expense of the farmers, and these had found themselves obliged to resort in self-defence to dishonest practices in order to escape being robbed of their hard-won earnings. The desire to outwit and overreach a tax-collector seemed to them both justifiable and praiseworthy. In course of time they came to look upon the practice as a virtue rather than a vice, and the bad habit thus formed clung to them after the conditions which gave birth to it had passed away.

In spite of some efforts on the part of English governors to conciliate them, the Boers did not give up all hopes of deliverance. They imagined that the fleets of Napoleon would come to their rescue, but in this they were disappointed, for Nelson's victory at Trafalgar was a mortal blow to the naval power of France. Still, the colony did not pass definitely into English hands till 1814, when the downfall of the French in Europe resulted in the return of the exiled stadtholder to Holland, where he was once more acknowledged as ruler. For a sum of six million pounds he agreed to cede to England the Cape Colony, and the tract of territory now known as British Guiana.

By this time the Boers were becoming more reconciled to the presence of their foreign masters. They had not

much cause for complaint; their religion was respected, and their language was still used in the law-courts and public offices. Intermarriages between the two races were frequent, and their mutual aversion was gradually giving way to friendlier feelings. It seemed as if English and Dutch were about to settle down in good-fellowship side by side. In another chapter we shall see that, unfortunately for S. Africa, this happy union did not take place.

XLVIII.—KAFFIR WARS (1813–1835).

The colonists, it must be remembered, were mostly farmers, consequently their riches consisted chiefly of cattle, and almost every war that has arisen in South Africa has been connected directly or indirectly with this question of flocks and herds. The natives, like the English and Scottish borderers, were given to making raids and carrying off all the live stock of their neighbours. This led to reprisals, and the flame of war once lighted spread rapidly from point to point.

The Kosas, one of the Kaffir tribes east of the Fish River, were perhaps the most expert cattle robbers, and in 1813 Sir John Cradock sent an armed force to punish them. In 1817 Lord Charles Somerset, the governor of Cape Colony, visited the frontier, summoned the native chiefs to meet him, and on the 2nd of April held an interview with Gaika, his son Makoma, and his rival Ndlambe, besides others of less note. Gaika promised to suppress the raids on farmers, and to punish detected thieves. His fellow-chiefs, however, refused to be bound by his words, and the thefts soon became as numerous as ever. The garrison of the colony being shortly after

reduced, depredations increased every day; and Ndlambe even refused to restore stolen cattle found in his kraal.

In 1818 hostilities broke out between Gaika and Ndlambe, the latter being encouraged to attack his enemy by the prophecies of a fanatic named Makana, who passed for a seer. Gaika's forces were routed with



great slaughter, and he appealed for aid to the British, who enabled him to revenge himself: thus was brought about the Kaffir war of 1818-19. The Kosas invaded Grahamstown, but were finally driven back, and the boundary of the Kaffirs was moved from the Fish River to the Keiskamma, and on the banks of the latter Fort Willshire was built to shelter troops for patrolling the neutral ground.

Raids, however, continued at intervals under successive governors down to 1830, when Lieut.-colonel Wade held

the supreme post. In this year soldiers looking for stolen cattle were threatened by two chiefs, Makoma and Tyali, and would have been surrounded and cut off had they not used their muskets. Gaika was now dead, and Makoma his son had been appointed regent during the minority of Sandile, another son of the late chief. The regent cherished grievances against the government for loss of territory, and was irritated by constant changes of policy. An effort was made to recover the stolen cattle, and as it was judged that Makoma and Tyali, in order to avoid being found out, would very likely have sent the beasts away, it was resolved to leave them alone, and pay a surprise visit to the kraals of four of their subordinates. So much stolen property was discovered in possession of one of them that he was taken to Fort Willshire as a prisoner. In another kraal, that of Seko, a large number of the missing cattle were discovered, so the entire herd was seized, with the exception of the milch cows. The petty chief in whose possession they were found, was told all would be driven to the fort, the stolen cattle picked out, and the rest restored.

On the way Seko and his men were allowed to drive the herd, but were forbidden to take their assegais. Suddenly there was confusion, the Kaffirs whistled shrilly, and, driven back by natives in front, the herd turned and nearly trampled the farmers to death. Assegais from concealed foes came whirling through the air, but so great was the dust that none could see clearly what was going on. The colonists fired, killing Seko and six of his followers, but the rest of the Kaffirs succeeded in driving off about 900 cattle, only 1600 reaching Fort Willshire. Tyali arrived presently at the fort, and pointed out many of the cattle as his own, but

it was discovered that some of those so claimed belonged to the farmers, and he was reprimanded. For a long time he and his half-brother, Makoma, stifled all expression of resentment, but they laid their plans for revenge, and in 1834, judging that the moment had come, led more than 12,000 armed Kaffirs across the boundary line. The secret had been well kept. The white people were taken completely by surprise, so that for about a fortnight the Kaffirs burned and pillaged in all directions.

The farmers, traders, and missionaries had not noticed that anything was wrong, and had been unaware of the sharpening of the assegais. Taken by surprise, they had to abandon their homes, and with their families they sought refuge at the various military stations. When news of the disaster reached Cape Town, military law was proclaimed in the disturbed district. Troops were moved up to the seat of war, and the command was taken over by Colonel Smith, an officer who had served in the Peninsula, and was afterwards prominent in South African history as Sir Harry Smith.

In the spring of 1835 the English crossed the river Keiskamma, and by the end of September the Kosas submitted. In May the new governor, Sir Benjamin D'Urban, who gave his name to the town of Durban, proclaimed the eastern boundary of the colony to extend eastward to the right bank of the Kei River. This extension of territory was, however, forbidden by Lord Glenelg, the secretary of state for the colonies in England. He was of opinion that the Kosas had been wronged, and, much to the alarm of the colonists, restored the lands that had been won. The Kosas regarded this action as a sign of weakness, and proceeded with ever-increasing audacity to rob and murder the colonists.

XLIX.—BOER EMIGRATION (1835–1838).

About the year 1835 the Boers living in Cape Colony had become so profoundly discontented with British rule, that they determined to abandon their farms, give up the result of their labours, and, like the Children of Israel, go out into the wilderness in search of freedom. The causes that led them to take this weighty resolution were numerous. They had lost heavily by the sudden emancipation of the negro slaves. Promises had been made that the slave-owners should be compensated for losing them, by payment fixed on a basis of the price of slaves current during the previous eight years. This proved to be untrue. The sum allowed as compensation by the home government was quite inadequate, and many slave-owners were suddenly reduced to poverty. As most of the Boers had previously expressed themselves in favour of gradual emancipation, these summary and unjust proceedings excited bitter resentment.

Another cause of public discontent was the loss suffered during the Kaffir war, when, to quote Sir Benjamin D'Urban, "seven thousand of His Majesty's subjects were in one week driven to utter destitution". As a result of Lord Glenelg's policy the eastern districts were still open at any moment to murderous attacks and raids. The British government, indeed, seemed bent upon supporting the black at the expense of the white man; it refused to take the steps necessary to defend the farmers against the Kaffirs, and lent a willing ear to all tales, true or untrue, of atrocities committed by the Boers. The substitution of the English language for Dutch in the law-courts and schools was a further grievance; and



The Great Boer "Trek" to Natal in 1836.

finally, foreign rule was as distasteful to the Boers as it has ever been to Englishmen.

In 1836 the contemplated "trek" began, the number of emigrants being estimated at about six thousand. The farmers moved to the north and north-east, occupying lands now known as the Orange Free State, Natal, and the South African Republic. They had many adventures on the way, and the record may be traced by the names they gave the various towns and villages they founded. Thus Weenen, in Natal, means "weeping", and was so called from a massacre of the white men, by the Zulus under their chief Dingane; while Pretoria, Pietermaritzburg, and Potchefstroom recall the Boer leaders, Pretorius, Pieter Retief, Gerrit Maritz, and Hendrick Potgieter.

One party under Potgieter halted near the Vet river. The native chief of the district willingly made over the territory between the Vet and the Vaal to the Boers in exchange for a small herd of cattle and a promise to protect him against his fierce foe the Matabele. These were the followers of Moselekatse, a Zulu chieftain who had sometime previously been driven from his country, for not having sent to the Zulu king all the booty captured from a hostile tribe he had been sent to exterminate. When Moselekatse had fled far enough north to be out of the reach of his wrathful master, he continued to slaughter and plunder the neighbouring tribes till the terror of his name spread far and wide.

On returning from an exploring expedition to the north, Potgieter learnt that during his absence a band of Matabele had surprised and massacred many of the emigrants. Fearing another attack he immediately lashed fifty wagons together in a circle, collected the women

and children inside the laager thus formed, and with the forty surviving men prepared to offer a stubborn resistance.

The Matabele warriors arrived, and, certain of victory, charged up to the wagons and tried to force a way in between them, but the gaps had been filled with thorn-trees. The Boers, thus sheltered, and aided by the women, who loaded and handed them spare guns, were able to keep up an incessant and murderous fire upon the black masses swarming round the laager. At last the Matabele went off, driving before them the cattle of the defenders. The Boers had won the victory, but their position was hopeless; their provisions had almost come to an end, and it was not safe to quit the laager. As they had no cattle to drag the wagons elsewhere, they were faced by the prospect of a lingering death in the wilderness.

Fortunately other bands of emigrants were advancing from behind, and these, on learning the plight of their friends, came to their relief. A small force was sent to make an audacious attack on the nearest village or kraal of the Matabele, and it was a complete success. The blacks were taken by surprise, fled, and were pursued and shot down till darkness stayed the hands of the victors. The kraal was burned to the ground, and, lighted on their way by the flames, the Boers returned, driving before them seven thousand head of cattle.

Fresh bands of emigrants continued to arrive and settle down in the promised land. They were not yet masters of it, for the warlike Matabele were still within striking distance. About one hundred and forty well-mounted farmers went forth to meet twelve thousand warriors led by Moselekatse. For nine days they fought, the Boers trusting to their splendid horses and their deadly

guns, the Matabele to their numbers and their bravery. In vain the nimble blacks sought to surround and cut down the little band of horsemen. Always alert and untiring, the farmers never allowed themselves to be entrapped, and, keeping their own distance, shot down their assailants by hundreds. The spear proving no match for the bullet, the Matabele yielded, and, collecting their women and cattle, fled across the Limpopo into the land of the Mashonas. On this wretched people they vented their wrath, and their descendants continued to plunder and oppress it till they in turn had to submit to the troopers of Dr. Jameson.

After the victory the Boers quietly took possession of the vacated territory, which comprised a great part of the two countries now known as the Orange Free State and the Transvaal. It was almost uninhabited, for the natives who had formerly peopled it had been massacred or dispersed by the ruthless warriors of Moselekatse.

L.—ENGLISH AND DUTCH IN NATAL (1838–1842).

While the main body of the Boer emigrants were fighting the Matabele, one of their leaders, Pieter Retief, crossed the Drakenberg with a few followers and entered the pleasant, well-watered land of Natal. He found that the country stretching from the Tugela river on the north to the Umzimvubu on the south was but thinly inhabited, for here, as elsewhere, the terrible short-handled stabbing-spear of the Zulus had been at work. Farther south, by the sea, were a few English traders, who welcomed the Boers and gave them guides to lead them to

the capital of Dingan, the Zulu king, whose permission to settle in Natal it was necessary to obtain. Dingan received his visitors kindly, feasted them, and held in their honour a grand review of his splendidly trained regiments. He granted their request on condition that they forced a tribe, which lived not far east of the Vet river, to restore cattle stolen from a Zulu outpost. This Retief willingly consented to do, and returned to Winburg, the Boer head-quarters, well pleased with the result of his mission.

The stolen cattle were surrendered without bloodshed, and Retief easily persuaded a large number of emigrant families to follow him into Natal. They halted on the southern slopes of the Drakenberg, while Retief himself, with about sixty-five Boers and a few Hottentot servants, hurried on to hand over the cattle to Dingan. The king again welcomed them, gave them a document confirming their right to settle in Natal, and, to celebrate the occasion, invited them to a feast. When they were seated, he shouted a command to one of his regiments. The guests were suddenly seized, dragged to the place of execution, and clubbed to death. Not one of them escaped.

Shortly after this base act of treachery, ten thousand Zulus quitted the capital, and, after a few days' rapid marching, fell suddenly at dawn upon the waiting people at the foot of the Drakenberg. The most advanced body of emigrants was encamped at a spot near where now stands the village called Weenen (weeping), and it was the first to be attacked. The men and women were stabbed, the necks of the children and babies were twisted and their heads dashed to pieces against the wagons. Exulting and thirsting for more blood, the warriors of Dingan pressed on. But the farmers in the rear had

been warned, and hastily formed laagers, which they defended heroically till the sun went down, and the Zulus, whose dead lay in heaps round the wagons, gave up the contest and disappeared into the gathering darkness.

Next morning some of the farmers proposed flight, but they were put to shame by the women, who were foremost in demanding that the Zulus should pay in blood for the slaughter of innocent children. Messengers were sent to Winburg, and soon three to four hundred horsemen arrived under Potgieter and Uys. They marched to attack the Zulu capital from one side, while the English quitted Port Natal with a large native following to attack it from another. Neither force was a match for the Zulus in the open field. The Boers were entrapped in a narrow valley, and, surrounded by foes, had to fight their way back and fly for their lives. The Natal army found itself suddenly in the midst of seven thousand warriors, and was almost completely destroyed.

It was not till some months later, in November of the same year 1838, that the Boers again set out to give battle. They were commanded by Pretorius, a captain of great ability, who adopted prudent tactics. He took with him a number of wagons, and when the Zulus appeared they found the farmers securely stationed inside an impregnable laager. After two hours' hard fighting the soldiers of Dingan fled, leaving three thousand of their bravest piled up round the wagons. So great was the slaughter that a stream which flowed hard by ran red, and it is to this day known as the Blood River.

After this defeat Dingan burnt his capital and kept out of the way till the Boers had departed. He then returned and waited for an opportunity to revenge himself. It never came, for in the next year, 1839, his half-

brother Panda rose up against him and took the side of the farmers. A fierce battle was fought between the two rival chieftains, and Dingan was utterly defeated. Panda



The Defence of a "Laager".

ruled in his stead, not as an independent king, but as the vassal of the Boers, to whom he paid forty thousand head of cattle. Thus in less than four years the wandering emigrants had dispersed the Matabele and had broken the power of the Zulus.

The Boers now looked forward to years of rest and plenty in the sunny land of Natal, but they were doomed to disappointment. Their slaughter of Dingan's blood-thirsty warriors had raised a feeling of indignation in England, where it was thought that the Zulus, like the Kosas, were a peaceable, virtuous, and ill-used people. This feeling grew stronger when it was known that the Boers had severely punished a chief, a notorious robber, who dwelt on their southern border, and had compelled native immigrants, whose presence was undesirable, to quit Natal. Further, the British government, which had hitherto refused to annex this country, though frequently urged to do so long before the arrival of the Boers, now decided that it ought to form part of the empire. Captain Smith was therefore despatched with a body of soldiers to convince Pretorius that he and his followers were still British subjects.

The Boers had not sacrificed their lives and their property for nothing. That rightly or wrongly they considered British rule intolerable is proved by the horrors and dangers they had faced in order to escape from it. They asserted their independence and prepared to fight. Captain Smith did not keep them waiting; he had a singular contempt for the military skill of his opponents, and with 137 men marched out one starlight night to deliver a crushing blow. On his way he had to pass a thicket, and this thicket concealed Pretorius and his farmers, who opened a murderous fire on the advancing column and forced it to beat a hasty retreat.

Smith fortified his camp and sent for help. He bravely withstood a siege of twenty-six days, at the end of which time his men were reduced to eating horse-flesh and dried biscuit-dust. On the arrival of fresh British troops the

Boers were forced to submit. The majority of them, rather than stay in a country no longer their own, once more packed up their household goods and set out to seek a new home beyond the Drakenberg. Thus Natal became in 1842 a British possession; and it is fortunate for the colony that it did, for the Boers, though formidable foemen, had not shown themselves to be enlightened rulers.

One of the first measures of the English government was the restoration of the southern portion of the newly acquired territory to its native rulers, the river Umzimkulu being made the boundary. On the north the limits of the colony were extended to the Buffalo river, and the independence of the Zulus, for whom the English cherished feelings of good-will, was recognized. They were able to recover from the crushing defeat inflicted upon them by the Boers, and we shall find them later on shedding the blood of their British admirers.

LI.—SIR HARRY SMITH (GOVERNOR, 1847–1852) AND THE KAFFIRS AND BOERS.

We have seen how in 1835 Lord Glenelg, then secretary of state for the colonies, set the interest of the Kosas before those of the colonists, and restored to the former the territory beyond the Fish River that Sir Benjamin D'Urban had taken from them. The result was that the Kosas, thinking themselves invincible, continued to harry and plunder the border settlers for more than ten years. They committed over a hundred murders on British soil, and behaved much as if actual war had been declared. The unfortunate settlers got no

sympathy in England, for the authorities still chose to regard the Kosa robbers and murderers as a gentle and peaceable folk which had only taken up arms in defence of its liberties. The Kosas, on their side, considered the white men as lawful prey, easily deceived and easily plundered, and they did not fail to make the best of their opportunities.

At last the colonists lost patience. A Kosa caught stealing at one of the English forts was seized and taken to the nearest magistrate's office for trial. On the way the escort was attacked by the friends of the thief, who escaped with them across the border. Thereupon the governor sent a message to their principal chief Sandile, and demanded the surrender of the offenders. Sandile had too much contempt for the English to listen to such a request. A force was despatched to compel him to give satisfaction, and after it rolled a long train of wagons conveying provisions and ammunition. Sandile cut off and seized the wagons, and the British forces were forced to retreat with considerable loss. Bands of exulting Kosas swarmed into the colony, burning houses, lifting cattle, and murdering many settlers who had not time to escape to towns or forts. They were joined by another tribe, the Pemu, and the colonists in the eastern districts were reduced to the greatest misery.

All the forces of the Cape were called out, but they could do little, for the devastations of the Kosas had reduced the supply of provisions, and what was left was needed for the distressed families driven from their homes and estates by the ruthless raiders. On the arrival of several more British regiments, the Kosas promised to behave better in the future, and went home to attend to their crops. Another rising had to be

quelled, however, before quiet was secured. Their outrages had produced one good result: the British government, deaf to the entreaties of the colonists, was moved to take a less charitable view of the Kaffirs when it came to calculate the cost of the war. A complete change of policy was made, and Sir Harry Smith, who had been the right-hand man of Sir Benjamin D'Urban, was sent out (1847) to effect the very measures that had caused the disgrace of his former commander.

He was an old friend of the colonists, and received a hearty welcome. The Kosa territory between the Keiskamma and the Kei was annexed, under the name of British Kaffraria. A commission was appointed to exercise general control over the Kosas, who otherwise were left in undisturbed possession of their lands. They made no objection to the new arrangement, for at the moment it did not suit them to provoke a new trial of strength; they were content to bide their time.

Sir Harry Smith then annexed the territory lying between the Orange and Vaal rivers, under the name of the Orange River Sovereignty. Many of the Dutch emigrants who had "trekked" into this district in order to be free from British interference rose in arms under Pretorius. They were defeated at Boomplaats, and those who would not submit, once more broke up their homes and went north beyond the Vaal river. There the South African Republic (Transvaal) was established, and its independence was guaranteed by the Sand River Convention in 1852. Two years later the British government, eager to get rid of burdensome responsibilities, declared the Orange River settlement, much against the will of its inhabitants, to be a free state. To-day those interested in the welfare of South Africa would gladly see the

South African Republic and the Orange Free State united to the other South African states; but such a union still seems very far off.

Meanwhile the Kosas were growing weary of peace, and their discontent was further aroused by the British policy of interfering with their customs. Their "witch-finders" had been suppressed; they had no longer anyone to protect them against evil spirits, wizards and witches, or to "smell out" individuals who had committed crimes at the bidding of the evil spirits; and they therefore determined to take up arms. Sir Harry Smith was obliged to hasten troops to the frontier. The border settlers were again forced to quit their burning homes, cattle were lifted, and the land laid waste. For over two years the war went on. The Kosas never offered to fight a decisive battle in the open, but contented themselves with cutting off stragglers and making sharp attacks when least expected. Want of provisions forced them at length to yield. Sir Harry Smith was made responsible for a war that could not have been avoided, and was recalled by the government in 1852. His successor, Sir George Cathcart, placed a strong force in British Kaffraria, to maintain order and assert the authority of the government.

LII.—SIR GEORGE GREY (1854-1860) AND BRITISH KAFFRARIA.

Perhaps the most remarkable man who has acted as Governor of Cape Colony and High Commissioner is Sir George Grey, who in 1854 succeeded Sir George Cathcart. He had already made his reputation in South Australia

and New Zealand, which colonies he established on a sound financial basis, and though in both he at first met with much opposition and abuse he eventually became popular. Indeed, when leaving New Zealand for South Africa he was publicly feted, and the Maoris themselves, whom he had conquered, assembled to do him honour.

As soon as he arrived at his new post, his first act was an attempt to conciliate the natives. To many of the Kaffir chiefs he gave pensions; he established institutions wherein the young men might be trained in gardening, agriculture, carpentry, and other useful occupations; and made an attempt to destroy the belief of



Sir George Grey. (From a photograph by Russell & Sons, London.)

the Kaffirs in witchcraft, by establishing at King Williamstown a hospital where their sick were tended free of charge. Belief in witchcraft is one of the chief difficulties that present themselves in dealing with the natives of South Africa. Their witch-doctors play on their superstitions, and to gain their own ends often point out unhappy creatures as guilty of crimes they have not committed. These are immediately tortured and robbed, esteeming themselves fortunate if they escape with life.

Attempts to prohibit this "smelling out" on the part of the witch-doctors are always opposed by the people, who fear that without them as a safeguard they will be delivered into the power of malignant spirits. Englishmen for the most part have been slow to realize how important a part beliefs, that to them appear simply absurd, play in the lives of savages or half-civilized tribes, and this want of knowledge has more than once cost them dear.

Africans hold that communities are responsible for the acts of individuals composing them, consequently the ignorance, folly, or wantonness of one man has frequently led to massacres of many unoffending people. Such a calamity was narrowly averted in the fifties, when an Englishman who knew nothing of the religious notions of the Matabele, was visiting at a Matabele kraal. His attention was attracted by a snake hanging from a tree. He raised his gun, and would have shot it, but for an old hunter who stood by, and who hurriedly struck up his weapon. Had he killed the snake, he and his companions would probably have been tortured to death in the most horrible fashion, for according to Matabele ideas, no punishment could be too severe for such an outrage, the chief believing the spirit of one of his ancestors to be embodied in the reptile.

The influence of superstition on the Kaffirs nearly led to the extermination of the Kosa tribes in 1856, when an epidemic, unfortunately one of many, broke out amongst the cattle in Kaffraria. The loss and misery that this involved were increased by the prophecies of a lunatic, who declared that the people should destroy all their remaining herds and corn, since their dead chieftains were about to rise again, and bring with them a new species of

cattle that would ever remain unaffected by disease. He added that when the dead chiefs came back, they would bring the Russians in their train to conquer the English and restore to the natives the land of which they had been deprived.

Full of belief in these prophecies, the Kosa tribes living between the Keiskamma and Bashee rivers began to slaughter the stock that had escaped the pestilence, and to burn their corn. February 18th, 1857, was the date the prophet had fixed for the resurrection of the chiefs, but when the day came and passed without bringing the promised event, the widest misery was experienced. Some twenty-five thousand Kaffirs are reported to have died of starvation, and four times that number wandered forth seeking means of subsistence. Out of a population of over 100,000 only 37,000 were left.

By the breaking up of the Kosas, large tracts of country became vacant, and on some of these Sir George Grey settled bodies of German soldiers who had been in the service of England during the Crimean war, and for whom he formed military villages. On others he settled selected individuals from Cape Colony, who were expected to pay a small rent, and afford military service when called upon. The military villages proved failures. There was not a sufficient number of women to give permanency to the settlements, and many of the men were better adapted for town than for country life. An experiment which followed had, however, better results. This consisted in introducing a body of agricultural labourers from North Germany, peasants with their wives and families, all frugal, pious, sober, and accustomed to hard work. Over two thousand of these people were sent to East London by a Hamburg merchant, under

contract with Sir George Grey, and the scheme answered admirably. The immigrants were settled in the valley of the Buffalo River, cultivated their plots of ground, established market-gardens, and in a short time almost monopolized the local trade in vegetables.

British Kaffraria was supposed to be independent of Cape Colony, but, as a matter of fact, any measure that became law in the latter was speedily proclaimed in the former, so that they were practically governed by the same parliament. Frequent calls for money had to be made by Kaffraria, which was poor, on the imperial treasury, and as a result it was suggested that it might with advantage be incorporated with Cape Colony, thus saving much extra expense. The idea was favoured by the home government, but not by the colonists, nor was it carried into effect until after Sir George Grey had quitted the Cape. His successor, Sir Philip Wodehouse, succeeded in 1865 in passing the measure through both local houses of parliament.

Meantime Sir George Grey was missed in New Zealand, which seemed unable to get on without him. The Maoris were once more in revolt, and their bravery and military skill made them foemen not to be despised. Accordingly in 1860 he departed to resume the work that had been interrupted some six years previously by his transference to South Africa. He was one of the greatest of governors that Cape Colony ever had; he did much to extend and strengthen its boundaries and to better the condition of its native tribes. That the latter were grateful is shown by an address delivered years later to a subsequent governor. In it Sir G. Grey is described as a "good governor, good to tie up the hands of bad men, good to plant schools, good to feed the

hungry, good to have mercy". More than this, he suggested, at a time when it was possible, the union of the various South African States. The English government turned a deaf ear to his proposals, and thus a splendid opportunity was lost of doing what to-day is earnestly desired but more difficult than ever to bring about.

LIII.—DISCOVERY OF DIAMONDS (1867–1871).

In 1867 a discovery was made which has completely revolutionized South African life. A trader named O'Reilly, while visiting a Dutch farmer in Griqualand West, saw his children playing the familiar game of knucklebones, and was struck by the brilliance of one of the pebbles used by them. O'Reilly called the farmer's attention to it, and was told by him that it was of no value, and that he might have it if he wished, as his children could find others of the same kind. Now the trader, though he had never seen a diamond in the rough, had heard vague rumours of their existence in those parts, and fondly hoped that this might prove to be a precious stone. He therefore accepted the pebble, at the same time promising that if it was found to be of any value, he would share the proceeds of its sale equally with the farmer.

O'Reilly submitted his pebble to be tested by experts, and after some difference of opinion, it was declared to be a diamond worth £500, and was bought by the governor of Cape Colony for that sum. Search was at once made in the neighbourhood, and other diamonds were found, amongst them being the famous "Star of the South". It had long been in the possession of a Hotten-

tot witch-doctor, who looked upon it as a powerful charm. This stone, bought for £400, was at once sold for £11,000, and after changing hands several times is now the property of an English countess. The news of these discoveries soon spread abroad, and from all parts of South Africa people began to hurry in search of wealth to the banks of the Vaal river.

But still further impetus was given by the opening up of what are now known as the De Beers and Kimberley mines in 1870-71. These were situated in a district where stood the farm of an old-fashioned Dutchman named Hans de Beers. He objected to the interference of the diggers with his peaceful mode of life, and being quite unmoved by possibilities of wealth, did his utmost to keep them out of his neighbourhood. Finding, however, that this was impossible, he determined to sell his farm and retire with his family into the Orange Free State. £6000 was the price offered for the farm, but £600 was added when, just before the completion of the sale, a large diamond was turned up by the point of a lady's parasol. The same land, it may be added, was sold a little later for £100,000, and as much as twelve million pounds' worth of diamonds are said to have been obtained from this mine within nine years.

From this time forward people began to flock to the diggings from all parts of the world, and every road leading into the interior was thronged with trains of wagons carrying provisions to the miners. The whole face of the country was quickly changed; towns sprang up in quick succession; the peaceful agricultural life soon disappeared, and everywhere was bustle and activity.

Meantime, the possession of this valuable territory had come into dispute. Before the recent discoveries it

had been looked upon as utterly worthless; nobody had thought of annexing it, and there had been practically no government in the country. Now that there had been so great an influx of people, a strong hand was urgently need to cope with the lawlessness and disorder which



Sorting Gravel for Diamonds, Kimberley.

ensued. The country belonged to a Griqua chieftain named Waterboer, but his right to it was contested by the Orange Free State. Neither of these claimants was sufficiently strong to keep order among the diggers, and neither would have submitted to the rule of the other.

The only solution of the difficulty was for the English to annex the territory, and accordingly in 1871 Waterboer ceded Griqualand West to Great Britain in return for an annual payment to himself and family. The

Orange Free State was also granted £90,000 to console it for the loss of what never would have been its.

Under British rule the country was well governed, and the diamond industry continued to flourish. Machinery gradually took the place of the primitive methods hitherto employed by the diggers, and improvements were constantly being introduced involving generally a large outlay. The result was that companies began to be formed, which took the place of private enterprise. The companies thus formed were keen rivals, and being constantly engaged in lawsuits one with another, their profits sank to a very low ebb. A scheme was therefore set on foot by well-known South African financiers, amongst whom Mr. Cecil Rhodes was most conspicuous, for the amalgamation of the rivals into one large company. After considerable difficulties, "De Beers Limited" bought out the other companies, and won for itself the practical monopoly of the diamond industry.

But though the diamond industry is thus almost entirely in the hands of one great company, still, every class in South Africa has benefited. Immense sums are annually paid away in wages, and employment has been provided for thousands; merchants have found new markets for their goods, and the government has added largely to its revenue by rates and taxes. And, what is of more importance still, but for the discovery of diamonds the vast territory to the north of the Transvaal, which is being so rapidly developed at the present time, would in all probability have been left undisturbed in the possession of the natives, and untouched by the influences of civilization.

LIV.—ISANDHLWANA AND MAJUBA HILL
(1878–1881).

Between the years 1878 and 1881 the most notable events in South Africa were undoubtedly the British defeats at Isandhlwana and Majuba Hill; the former by the Zulus under Cetewayo, the latter by the Boers. These battles are such comparatively recent history that their names are known to all, but it may be well to give in a few words the circumstances that led to them. The Boers of the Transvaal Republic lived on bad terms with their Zulu neighbours. They had annexed some land near the Blood River which the Zulus claimed as their property, and, moreover, the farmers had offered to protect the Swazis, who were subject to the Zulus. Rumours of cruelty on the part of the Boers were circulated, and it was also asserted that slavery existed within their borders, despite the formal clause prohibiting it that had been inserted in the Sand River Treaty which guaranteed their independence.

As a result of the charges against the Boers, Sir Theophilus Shepstone, secretary for native affairs in Natal, was sent by Lord Carnarvon, then secretary of state, to inquire into the condition of things in the Transvaal, and, if necessary, to annex that territory. In 1877, accordingly, the Transvaal was annexed despite Boer protests, President Burgers being pensioned and sent to Cape Town. Delegates were despatched to England to plead the cause of the Boers, but without result, and the English government, in its new position, found itself brought into contact with the Zulus, and obliged to take over as a heritage the discontent that had accumulated under Boer rule.

The Zulus were led by their chief Cetewayo, a man of huge stature and admirable physique, who was one of the most remarkable of the native chiefs in regard to his cunning, valour, and powers of organization. The question of a boundary had long been in dispute between him and the Boers, and the final decision was left to Sir



Scene in the Zulu War.

Bartle Frere, the High Commissioner. The boundary line was fixed to the satisfaction of the Zulus, but Cetewayo was required by Sir Bartle to make compensation for outrages committed by his followers, to disband his army, and to submit to various other conditions. As he made no reply to this demand, a British force, under Lord Chelmsford, entered his territory. This force was divided into three bodies, one to the right advancing to Eshowe, one to the left under Sir Evelyn Wood, and

one to the centre to hold the Buffalo River at Rorke's Drift.

On the 20th January, 1879, the centre column reached a hill known as Isandhlwana, which rises steep and precipitous from a plain. Here the men encamped, and next day half the troops, under Lord Chelmsford in person, started out to attack a neighbouring kraal, leaving the rest of their comrades in camp. During their absence the Zulus surrounded Isandhlwana, and apparently finding the troops off their guard, overwhelmed them and cut them to bits. About eight hundred fell, and when their friends returned at night and saw the awful scene their grief and indignation passed all bounds. A grim story is told of five little drummer-boys being found who had been strung up, suspended by their ehins, and left to die. Savages are ingeniously cruel.

Meantime the men at Rorke's Drift had been attacked by the triumphant Zulus. There were nearly forty soldiers in hospital and about ninety sound under the command of two heroic officers, Lieutenant Chard and Lieutenant Bromhead. For close on twelve hours the struggle went on, the hospital being defended inch by inch, and the soldiers fighting like tigers behind ramparts of mealie bags and biscuit boxes hastily thrown together. With the dawn came Lord Chelmsford's troops, and the Zulus forbore to renew the attack.

In July, 1880, Lord Chelmsford gained the battle of Ulundi, and the following month Cetewayo himself was taken prisoner, thus bringing the war to a close.

Meantime the Boers resented annexation, and their protests against British rule remaining unnoticed, they resolved to have recourse to arms. On the 16th December, 1880, a republic was proclaimed by Kruger, Pretorius,

and Joubert, whereupon a detachment of British troops was moved into Pretoria. Sir George Colley took command, and he seems to have underrated the skill and power of his opponents, and proceeded to attack without waiting for reinforcements. At Lang's Nek and Ingogo the English suffered heavy loss, but their misfortune culminated at Majuba Hill, an elevation in the Drakenberg some 2000 feet in height, and commanding a mountain pass held by the Boers.

On the night of February 26th, 1881, a picked body of men, under Sir George himself, climbed the mountain, and arriving exhausted on the summit saw with the first gleam of daylight the Boers encamped below them. These in turn saw the English, and at first thought of immediate retreat, but other counsels prevailed, and they stormed the height at a point more accessible than that by which their enemies had climbed. Working up under cover, they gained the brow of the hill, and poured a destructive fire on their opponents. Sir George Colley fell, more than half his troops were slain, and the rest took to flight. The result of this battle was an armistice, and on the 23rd of March following an agreement was signed by Sir Evelyn Wood and the Boer leaders, whereby the independence of the Boers, under the suzerainty of the queen, was acknowledged. The Boer War was thereby brought to a close.

LV.—RHODESIA (1888–1894).

Rhodesia is the territory situated to the north of British Bechuanaland, and is named after Mr. Cecil John Rhodes, the son of an English clergyman, who went to

South Africa in the first instance for his health, and has done more towards extending the sphere of British influence than perhaps any living man. The Rhodesia of to-day was some ten years ago in possession of the Makalakas and Mashonas. These weaker tribes were



A Matabele Kraal. In the foreground a Witch-doctor is seated.

constantly being raided by the warlike Matabele under Lobengula, who built military kraals in the best situations, the principal being at Buluwayo, where the chief had his head-quarters.

Lobengula, on the whole, was favourable to the white men. He had been cured of an attack of gout by Dr. Jameson, and cherished towards him feelings of grati-

tude. When, therefore, on the 30th of November, 1888, he was approached by Messrs. Maguire, Rudd, and Thompson, and asked to affix his mark to a document that gave them the right to prospect for and extract metals within his territory, he consented, without realizing what the result of such a concession would be. To Lobengula the affair was very simple. A few white men, a dozen or two at most, would have leave to look for minerals of value. He never anticipated the wholesale immigration that resulted.

His European friends were wiser in their generation, and having obtained his mark, they established the association known as the British South African Company, or in shorter terms as The Chartered Company, from the fact of its having obtained an imperial charter on the 29th October, 1889, Mr. Rhodes being one of the directors. The company proceeded to take possession of suitable tracts of country, and some months afterwards the management of affairs was placed in the hands of Dr. Jameson. The young men of the Matabele viewed this incursion with disfavour, so efforts were made by the colonists to avoid collision with the natives. In September, 1890, the English reached the place now known as Salisbury, and, having examined the country, formed a line of forts from south to north, four in all, which were garrisoned by the company's police.

Lobengula did not like all this, but he did not wish to quarrel, so in a mistaken endeavour to create a rival interest to that of the Chartered Company, he conceded to Mr. Edward Lippert the right to dispose of lands within the company's sphere of operations. This right the company purchased from Mr. Lippert, and thereby became actual masters of Mashonaland. Lobengula and

his warriors objected, but were given to understand that while west of Shasthi, a tributary of the Sabi River, and of the Umnyati, which flows into the Zambesi, the rights of the Matabele would be respected, the English looked on the land east of that line as their property. Nothing happened until 1893, and meantime Europeans continued to arrive in Mashonaland. In February, 1892, the telegraph was established, and farming was tried. Printing-presses were imported, together with valuable machinery, and building lots were sold by auction at high prices.

In April, 1893, the telegraph wire was cut by Mashonas near Fort Victoria. Dr. Jameson fined the offenders, and they paid the fine in cattle. So far so good; but it proved that these cattle were not the rightful property of the Mashonas, but had been stolen from their hereditary enemies, the Matabele, to whom they were restored. According to Matabele ideas this was not sufficient. The Mashonas should be punished for their daring. Messengers, however, were sent to tell the Europeans they would not be harmed, and this promise on the whole was strictly adhered to. But the sight of Mashonas being cut down by Lobengula's men excited British sympathy, and numbers of fugitives were sheltered in the forts.

It was impossible to continue business under these conditions; accordingly Dr. Jameson desired the retirement of Lobengula's bands, but could not obtain this, as the blood of the young men was up. War was therefore inevitable, and both sides began to prepare for it. Lobengula refused to take his monthly subsidy from the Company, and declined, unless the fugitive Mashonas were delivered up to him, to give compensation for injury done to a farmhouse and some cattle carried off from the whites.

Efforts were made to obtain a guarantee that within a certain radius the Mashonas should not be molested, but this, too, Lobengula could not promise. The chief was anxious for peace, but it was impossible for him to restrain his people. He acted well towards the white traders and missionaries, telling them he could not answer for their safety, and advising them to retire. Those who elected to remain he treated kindly. It was evident to all that the crisis was at hand. Forts Victoria and Salisbury were strongly fortified, while Forts Charter and Tuli were garrisoned. Volunteers were enrolled, and in September, 1893, the first shots were fired. Two columns of troops prepared to advance on Buluwayo. The one under the command of Major Forbes and Major Allan Wilson consisted of nearly 700 men, with five Maxims and five other field-guns, attended by a force of about 600 blacks as scouts and helpers. The second column was under Lieutenant-colonel Goold Adams, who was accompanied by 1700 friendly Bechuanas under Khama.

On the 18th October, 1893, three Matabele indunas or chiefs, escorted by a white trader, arrived at the camp of Colonel Goold Adams. The trader having left the natives for a few minutes, the indunas were arrested as spies. Not understanding the situation, two of them endeavoured to escape, but were shot down. This deplorable occurrence, as might be expected, incensed the Matabele. Two fights, one on the banks of the Shangani River, the other near the source of the Imbembesi, ended in the entire defeat of the Matabele, and Lobengula fled across the Zambesi. He sent messengers with a thousand pounds in gold to the English camp asking for peace. The Matabele unfortunately met with two rascals who were acting as scouts of the Bechuanaland border police, and

to them gave their message and the money. The scouts kept the money and held their tongues.

Meantime Lobengula was being called upon to surrender, and Major Forbes with a body of men set out in pursuit of him. Arrived at the Shangani River, they heard that the Matabele chief was ill and had crossed the river only the day before. Major Wilson therefore pushed on with a small force of men, and on the 4th December came up with Lobengula, whose attendants attacked the new-comers. The Europeans were surrounded, and, fighting bravely to the last, were cut down. The blame for this dreadful incident lies at the door of the scouts who kept back the chief's message and stole his gold. It is some satisfaction to hear that they were eventually found out and sentenced to fourteen years' imprisonment with hard labour. In January, 1894, Lobengula died of fever. By that date most of the Matabele had submitted, and their country being added to Mashonaland, the territory of Rhodesia was formed.

LVI.—AFRICA TO-DAY (1898).

The explorations of Livingstone and others directed the attention of European nations to the interior of Africa. More recently the expedition of Mr. Stanley aroused still greater interest in these regions hitherto almost unknown. Light began to penetrate into the Dark Continent; it was found that it contained fertile tracts of land and broad pastures; that much of it was covered by luxuriant virgin forests, and that there was every evidence of the presence of valuable minerals. It was therefore a desirable possession, and no sooner did European nations

become convinced of the fact than what is called the "scramble for Africa" began.

In 1884 the English occupied, in the south, Cape Colony, Natal, and some adjacent territory. They had also a few scattered settlements on the west coast, while France, Spain, and Portugal were in possession of tracts of land on various parts of the coast. But, except in the case of Algiers and Cape Colony, none of these possessions stretched any distance inland. Almost the whole interior was in the hands of native blacks or Arab slave-traders. Since the partition of Africa began about fourteen years ago, all this has been completely altered. To-day there is hardly any portion of the continent that is not occupied or claimed by some European power. The map of Africa looks like the map of a greater Europe. It differs from it, however, in that the territory possessed by a single power does not form a compact whole, but is split up into sections and scattered over the face of the continent. There is, for instance, not one New England in Africa, but at least half a dozen.

So far France has come out of the scramble with the largest share. Of the eleven and a half million square miles which make up the continent, she has secured about three and a half million. Algeria has expanded south across the sandy Sahara to the Atlantic and the upper reaches of the Niger on one side and to Lake Chad on the other. By way of this lake the above region is connected with a vast tract of territory on the north of the Congo. The island of Madagascar has also quite recently passed definitely into French hands. Great part of this new empire, however, consists of deserts, which at present will not repay any attempts to cultivate them.

French Africa south of the Sahara is valuable only

destiny to perform, and by which they will certainly profit. What applies to the French possessions in the tropics applies to all other possessions which lie in the vast central regions north of the Zambesi. In many parts Europeans can reside for some years, but it is doubtful whether any but Spaniards, Greeks, and other dwellers on the northern shores of the Mediterranean could make there a permanent abode.

Great Britain possesses, after France, the largest share; it occupies or claims about two million and a quarter square miles of the total area. More than half its territory is situated in the tropical portion of the continent. On the west, besides a few small colonies and protectorates, the British possess an extensive and well-watered region round the lower reaches and the mouths of the Niger. The limits of this region on the north and western side have recently been defined by a convention signed at Paris by representatives of France and England (June, 1898). On the east we have another large protectorate which stretches north to Egyptian territory. Egypt, excepting the portion ruled by the Mahdi, with whom we are now fighting, is under our control. Nominally it is a tributary of Turkey, which also exercises suzerainty over Tripoli. Whether or not it is to remain in our hands is one of the vexed questions of the day.

In tropical Africa the Germans, Belgians, Spaniards, and Portuguese possess considerable tracts of territory, and, till their recent crushing defeat at the hands of Menelik, King of Abyssinia, the Italians had hopes of building up a great dependency in the eastern corner of the continent. Of the German possessions the best is that which lies to the south of the Victoria Nyanza. A great part of it, however, is waste, and, like many

other districts of Central Africa, it is infested by slave-traders. If the native African will have cause in the future to regret the coming of the Europeans, he will at least owe them a debt of gratitude for having delivered him from this inhuman traffic. Much, indeed, has already been done to crush the evil, but it still exists.

That part of Africa which lies south of the Zambesi alone provides a permanent home for the colonists of northern European nations. Its climate and its mineral wealth make it the most valuable possession in the continent. We have reason, therefore, to be thankful that the largest and best portion of it is owned by the British. On the west the Germans occupy Damaraland and Namaqualand, and on the east lies Portuguese East Africa. Between them British territory stretches from the Cape to the Zambesi, and north of this river is another large district known as British Central Africa, which lies, however, in the tropical region, and will in all probability never be more than a rich dependency.

British South Africa will play a most important part in the future history of the great continent, when once it ceases to be a house divided against itself. Unlike Australia, it is not a purely British possession, but is, as we have seen, shared with us by a large population of Dutch origin. The memory of past mistakes has rendered a certain section of this population hostile to our interests, and only when these painful, and for us somewhat ignominious memories have been obliterated, will British South Africa, united, and therefore strong, be able to make full use of her great natural advantages.

AUSTRALASIA.

LVII.—DISCOVERY OF AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND (1642-1699).

It is uncertain what navigator first saw the coast of Australia, but during the early part of the seventeenth century the Dutch visited the north, west, and south coasts, leaving their names and the names of their ships as enduring marks of their presence. The most enterprising of these old Dutch navigators was Abel Tasman, who in the year 1642 rounded the south-west corner of the continent and discovered Van Diemen's Land (Tasmania). Anchoring off the south-east side, he landed on the shore of a bay he called the Bay of Frederic Henry. His lack of curiosity was amazing. He fancied he heard the sound of people, but he saw nobody. All that he met with "worth observing was two trees", which were very thick and high. He also perceived "in the sand the marks of wild beasts' feet, resembling those of a tiger or some such creature. . . . I observed smoke in several places; however we did nothing more than set up a post, on which every one cut his name, or his mark, and upon which I hoisted a flag."

Leaving Van Diemen's Land, Tasman sailed eastward, and by chance discovered the east coast of South Island, New Zealand. Steering northward he anchored off its north-west corner. "We found here abundance of the inhabitants: they had very hoarse voices, and were very large-made people. They durst not approach the ship nearer than a stone's-throw; and we often observed them playing on a kind of trumpet, to which we answered

with the instruments that were on board our vessel. These people were of a colour between brown and yellow, their hair long, . . . combed up, and fixed on the top of their head with a quill or some such thing." On the next day the savages "began to grow a little bolder and more familiar". This familiarity grew to contempt, for the savages attacked a ship's boat and killed three men, after which foul weather forced Tasman to sail away. He observed that the country was rich and fertile, but made no attempt to land.

Still steering northward, Tasman sighted Cape Maria Van Diemen and visited the Island of the Three Kings, "the cape of which we doubled with a design to have refreshed ourselves". This design was speedily abandoned, for "we perceived on the mountain thirty or five-and-thirty persons, who, as far as we could discern at such a distance, were men of very large size, and had each of them a large club in his hand. They called out to us in a rough, strong voice, . . . walked at a very great rate, and . . . took prodigious large strides." Tasman contented himself, therefore, with coasting round the island. He saw a fresh-water river, but whether his discretion permitted him to go in and fill his fast-emptying water-casks we do not know. He then sailed to the north-west, and finally returned to Batavia.

The Dutch, and not the English, had the first chance of possessing Australia and New Zealand. They neglected their opportunities, because they were more intent upon trade than upon colonization, and because Holland was too small a country to bear the burden of empire. Tasman's voyage added something to the geographical knowledge of the time, but how imperfect was this knowledge one may gather from the statement of his chronicler:—"In

the first place, then, it is most evident from Captain Tasman's voyage, that New Guinea, Carpentaria, New Holland (Australia), Antony Van Diemen's Land, and the countries discovered by De Quiros (Samoa and New Hebrides), make all one continent, from which New Zealand seems to be separated by a strait; and perhaps is part of another continent, answering to Africa, as this, of which we are now speaking, plainly does to America." This continent makes, he adds, "a very large country, but nothing like what De Quiros imagined". The chronicler, having thus mapped the Pacific to his complete satisfaction, proceeds to rebuke De Quiros, whose statement, he remarks, only serves to show "how dangerous a thing it is to trust too much to conjecture in such points as these".

The first Englishman who sailed to explore the coast of New Holland was William Dampier. After an adventurous life spent in trading and buccaneering, he had, during a cruise round the world, set foot on the north-west coast. The country interested him, and he induced the English government to give him the command of the *Roebuck*, and send him on a voyage of discovery with a view to finding land suitable for settlement. In August, 1699, he entered an opening on the east coast, which he called Shark's Bay. He has left us a very accurate description of the country, of its poor soil, and its stunted though pretty vegetation. Sailing north he passed the cluster of islands named after him, and continued to follow the coast-line.

Some days afterwards natives were seen for the first time, but in spite of signs of peace and friendship nothing could be got out of them but threats and "great noise". A swift-footed young sailor, who tried to catch

one of them, was roughly handled for his pains. Dampier fired a shot over their heads, but they soon "learned to despise it, tossing up their heads and crying *pooh, pooh, pooh*, and coming on afresh with great noise". This was too much for the feelings of the old buccaneer, who fired his gun in earnest and put them to flight. Finding nothing but brackish water in their sun-parched country, he left them to their own devices, and quitting without regret the coast of Australia steered for the island of Timor. If Dampier had, as originally intended, sailed from England west through the Strait of Magellan, he would probably have reached the fair and fertile eastern shores of Australia, which were explored seventy years later by his more fortunate and more famous successor Captain Cook. As it was, his expedition furnished "no great matter of new discovery".

LVIII.—COOK AND NEW ZEALAND. 1769-1770.

One morning in October, 1769, there stood on the shore of a bay, east of North Island, a number of half-naked, dark-brown savages staring in amazement at a ship, much larger than the biggest of their war-canoes. This ship dropped anchor, and two boats leaving its side came ashore. The savages slipped away into the woods to wait and watch. Out of the first boat stepped a tall active man, who, followed by a few others, walked to where stood some quaint straw-thatched huts. Suddenly four wild-looking savages sprang yelling out of the woods and tried to seize the boat, which had been left in charge of a few boys. The second boat came to the

rescue, and fired two shots over the natives' heads. This made them stop and look round them, but they took no notice of the next shot, and one of them was just going to dart his spear when a third shot killed him on the spot. The remaining three stood still for a moment, wondering what had killed their comrade, and then turned tail and fled. The party at the huts returned quickly, the two boats rowed back, and the bay was left to the dead savage and to silence.

The ship was H.M.S. *Endeavour*, and her commander was Lieutenant James Cook, R.N. He had been ordered by the English government to sail to Otaheite, and, having there made certain astronomical observations, to go on a voyage of discovery into the S. Pacific, explore New Zealand, and then return home by whatever route he thought fit. After more than a year's voyage he had set foot on the shores of New Zealand and had gained his first experience of the Maoris, as above described. He was not the first to discover the country; the Portuguese are supposed to have known of it in the sixteenth century, and Tasman certainly saw its shores in 1642. Cook was the first to discover and explore the whole coast-line of the two islands. An account of his first voyage, written by himself, was published a few years ago, and we shall follow it in describing his adventures.

On the days following his arrival Cook, with Solander and Banks, the scientific members of the expedition, made several vain attempts to start friendly relations with the natives. At last, finding they could get neither fresh water, provisions, nor civility, they called the spot Poverty Bay, and sailed away south. To give names to the places he visits is one of the privileges of an explorer, and many of the capes, bays, and mountains on the shores of New

Zealand were christened by Cook. A little south of



The World (on Mercator's Projection), showing Captain Cook's Voyages (1768-1780).

Poverty Bay you will find Cape Kidnappers, where the Maoris tried to kidnap the son of Tupia, a native of

Otaheite, whom the captain had brought with him. Farther south again is Cape Turnagain, where the *Endeavour* turned again and sailed north, because the country looked uninteresting, and there seemed no likelihood of meeting with a harbour. Passing Poverty Bay, the explorers reached East Cape and then Cape Runaway, where a cannon-shot fired over the canoes of some insolent Maoris frightened them so much that they paddled away as fast as they could, and did not stop till they were safe on shore. Doubling North Cape, the *Endeavour* sailed down the west coast, passed through Cook's Strait, and then north again to Cape Turnagain, thus completing the circuit of North Island.

While the ship was sailing along the coast, it was constantly being visited, and sometimes surrounded, by the Maoris in their canoes, some of which held from eighty to a hundred men. "As soon as they came within about a stone's-throw of the ship", writes Cook, "they would there lie and call out . . . *Come here, come ashore with us, and we will kill you with our patoo-patoos*" (clubs). Finding the pale-faces in no haste to accept the invitation, they showed their contempt further by throwing stones at the *Endeavour*, and flourishing with great agility their paddles and patoo-patoos, all keeping time together, and making a hideous noise. A cannon-shot fired over their heads generally put them in a right frame of mind to listen to an exhortation from Tupia, who seems to have done a great deal of talking and to have enjoyed it thoroughly.

When once prevailed upon to come on board, the Maoris attempted no treachery, but were very much disposed to take without giving, and Cook had one of them flogged for stealing. The others, when they understood the

reason for the punishment, made no attempt to help their comrade, and "some old man beat the fellow after he had got into his canoe". The captain showed himself equally stern to his own men, and gave three of them a dozen lashes each for marauding on the natives' plantations. One of the culprits objected, as an Englishman, to being flogged for plundering a native, and had to be convinced that his conduct as an Englishman was wrong, by the application of a few extra lashes. "Punished Matthew Cox with 6 Lashes and then dismissed him", writes Cook, who was a man of few words.

It was while the captain was in Cook's Strait that he became convinced that the Maoris were cannibals; for one of them presented him with the forearm of a man he had just eaten. The various tribes were continually fighting with each other, the prisoners taken were devoured, and their skulls kept as precious trophies. These skull collectors were not pleasant fellows to look at, for they were accustomed to tattoo their brown skins with red and black streaks or spirals, which they took pains not to conceal by overmuch clothing. Their hair, soaked in fish-oil, often disagreeably rancid, they generally coiled up on the crown of the head, and in the coil a bone or a few feathers were stuck upright by way of ornament. That these painted warriors were wonderfully brave, the English were later to find out to their cost.

Leaving Cook's Strait, the *Endeavour* sailed round the South Island, but stormy seas and adverse winds often kept her at a distance from the shore. It is greatly to Cook's credit as a discoverer that he was always careful to state what places he did not properly explore. As it was, the chart he made of the coast-line of New Zealand is the most accurate ever drawn by any discoverer. He

did not penetrate into the interior, but saw enough of the country to judge of its fertility, great beauty, and delightful climate. After visiting Cook's Strait again, and naming Blind or Massacre Bay, where Tasman is thought to have come into conflict with the Maoris, Cook bade farewell to New Zealand, and quitting Cape Farewell, sailed westward.

LIX.—COOK AND AUSTRALIA. 1770.

About three weeks after quitting Cape Farewell, the *Endeavour* reached the south-east corner of New Holland, and Lieutenant Hicks first sighted a point of land which was called after him. The name is now given to a hill which is close to Cape Everard. If the ship had not been driven north by a gale the day before, Cook would have discovered that Van Diemen's Land was an island, and not, as people imagined, part of the mainland. In his time the northern, western, and southern shores of New Holland were roughly mapped out, but nothing was known of its eastern side, which was supposed to form, with Van Diemen's Land and New Guinea, an unbroken coast-line. This unknown coast Cook now set himself to explore.

On April 28th, 1770, the *Endeavour* sailed into a large sheltered bay on the shores of which stood a few naked dark-brown savages armed with darts. When the ship's boat approached the beach all made off except two, who prepared to resist by force the landing of the strangers. Thereupon the ever-ready Tupia stood up and spoke to them, but they understood not a word. Cook threw some beads and nails on shore. These were accepted,



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but another attempt to land resulted in hostilities, and one of the warriors had to be peppered with small shot before they consented to retreat slowly and with dignity. The bay in which this little encounter took place was called Botany Bay, on account of the large number of plants found there. The name afterwards became famous by its association with the first convict settlement in New South Wales.

Leaving Botany Bay Cook saw and named the entrance to Port Jackson, but he missed much by not exploring this magnificent harbour. He then sailed north along the coast, noting the beauty of the country, which was "diversified with an agreeable variety of hills, ridges, and valleys, and large plains all clothed with woods". After passing Cape Capricorn the *Endeavour* entered the labyrinth of shoals that stretch along the coast north to Cape York. Navigation became slow and very difficult. Repeated soundings had to be taken, and it is astonishing that Cook managed to keep the keel of his ship off the treacherous ground as long as he did. In spite of his precautions the *Endeavour* struck on a coral reef and stuck fast. Guns and ballast had to be thrown overboard, the pumps kept going, and it was only after many hours' weary work that the vessel was floated. She was then run ashore near the mouth of the river named after her, where now stands Cooktown.

While damages were being repaired, the country round was explored. Kangaroos were seen for the first time, and the acquaintance of the natives was made. A few were persuaded to come on board, but they proved troublesome guests, for they proceeded without any ceremony to appropriate two turtles that lay on the deck. Disappointed in this, "they were for throwing everything

overboard they could lay their hands upon", left the ship in a temper, and on landing set fire to the grass with intent to burn alive Cook's sow, which had been put on shore with her litter to recover from the fatigues of the voyage. The sow was rescued, but one of the little pigs perished miserably in the flames. Some days after this tragedy the ship left Endeavour River and continued to thread her way through the shoals as far as Cape Flattery, so called because Cook flattered himself that he had a clear channel ahead. In this he was mistaken, and fearing lest the *Endeavour* might be locked in by shoals and isles, he steered her outside the Barrier Reef into the open sea.

As he skirted the Barrier Reef another and a more terrible danger beset him. Two days afterwards, writes Cook, "a little after four o'clock the roaring of the surf was plainly heard, and at daybreak the vast foaming breakers were too plainly to be seen not a mile from us, towards which we found the ship was carried by the waves surprisingly fast. We had at this time not an air of wind, and the depth of the water was unfathomable, so that there was no possibility of anchoring." The boats were lowered to tow, but in vain, and at six o'clock the ship was only a hundred yards from the reef. Hope of saving her there was none. Part of the crew might have escaped in the boats, but there was not room for all, and the land was ten leagues away.

Every second the doomed ship drifted nearer to the grim wall of coral rock, against which the ocean billows broke mountain-high to be hurled back in thundering clouds of foam. Cook tells us that at this terrible moment not one man ceased to do his duty; there was no faltering, no cowardice. Then, "when all our endeavours

seemed too little", a light breeze sprang up and moved them another hundred yards from the breakers. It went and came again and passed away. The *Endeavour* halted, her sails hung listless, and once more, sadly and slowly, she bore her brave captain and his crew towards the breakers.

Cook now saw an opening in the barrier and steered the ship for it, but out of this opening the tide gushed like a mill-stream, so that it was impossible to pass through. This current, however, bore the vessel two miles from the breakers. But the turning tide made hopes of getting clear impossible. Fortunately another opening was seen, and through it the ship was floated into safe water. "It was but a few days ago that I rejoiced at having got without the reef; but that joy was nothing when compared to what I now felt at being safe at an anchor within it." This sentiment, and his desire to find out whether there was a channel between New Holland and New Guinea, made Cook keep within the barrier till he rounded Cape York. He had now explored 2000 miles of coast, and proved that New Guinea was not part of New Holland. He thought he had done enough, and therefore turned the bows of the brave little *Endeavour* homewards.

LX.—LAST YEARS OF COOK.

Cook's reward for his services was promotion from the rank of lieutenant to that of commander—a poor reward for the man who had shown his countrymen the way to New Zealand and Australia. Still, the position in life to which his industry, energy, and ability had raised him

is remarkable enough when we consider that he was the son of a poor farm-labourer in Yorkshire, and that he started life as apprentice to a shopkeeper in the little fishing town of Staithes, just north of Whitby. There, from the old salts, he heard marvellous tales of the sea and of foreign lands that stirred his young blood, and made him long to go and see the great world for himself. One morning, therefore, like Robinson Crusoe, he ran away to sea. There is a legend that he robbed the till of a shilling before he started. So said the shopkeeper, but we have it on record that an ancient mariner spoke up and said: "Robbed t' till, man? Thou robbed it thyself last night to pay the reckonin'." He



Captain Cook.

added that the shopkeeper's inability to recall the fact only proved that his shilling's worth of liquor had played strange tricks with his memory. We prefer to believe that the ancient mariner spoke the truth.

Cook proved himself a steady and smart sailor, and in time rose to be mate in a collier which traded up and down the coast; but the life evidently did not satisfy his adventurous spirit. At the age of twenty-seven (1755) he entered as an able-bodied seaman on board H.M.S. *Eagle*,

which was sent to fight the French in American waters. It was soon discovered that Cook understood the art of navigation; his knowledge was utilized, promotion came rapidly, and his reputation was established by a famous chart of the channel of the St. Lawrence, which he prepared when serving in the fleet that helped Wolfe to take Quebec. This led to other important work, and in 1768 he was given the command of the *Endeavour*, and sent on the voyage already described.

No one was better fitted for the task than this man of iron frame and iron will, who had learnt to endure all hardships, and who did thoroughly and conscientiously everything he took in hand. How thorough and conscientious he was may be seen in his accurate observations of the men and lands he saw, in his admirable charts, and in the measures he took for the safety of his ship and its crew. If he had done nothing else, he would still be honoured as the man who showed us how to save the seaman from the horrors of scurvy.

Cook was not allowed to rest long under his laurels. Men learned in geography had made up their minds that there was a great southern continent, richer in treasure than America, inhabited by a highly civilized race, and in every way a most desirable possession. Cook's late discoveries in no wise disturbed their belief in its existence; they simply moved it farther south to the Antarctic Ocean and continued their disputations with unabated vigour. At last they wisely concluded to send Cook to explore this continent, and bring back a report of its people and its wealth. It did not occur to them that such a continent might not exist.

The captain set to work with his accustomed energy. For three years he cruised in the desolate waters which

beat on every side the frozen barriers that guard the Southern Pole, he revisited New Zealand, discovered New Caledonia and several other islands, and he finally sailed home, having proved beyond a doubt that the shores of the fabulous Southern Continent were a mass of rock and ice, on which it would not be possible for a civilized race to dwell.

Cook had now been at sea for thirty-four years, and he was forty-eight years of age. He might well have rested after his labours, but the spirit of the explorer was still strong within him. Before six months had passed he left his wife and children and started to solve another vexed problem, that of the North-west Passage. Frobisher and Davis had sought for it in vain, others had followed in the trail of their ships, and now Cook, the greatest of all, was to begin the search anew, but he was to sail not from the Atlantic to the Pacific but from the Pacific to the Atlantic. Leaving England in 1776, he again visited New Zealand, traversed the Pacific, passed through Behring Strait, and found the Arctic Sea to the east so blocked with ice that he had to give up all hopes of finding the passage. Turning south he visited Kamtchatka, and finally discovered the shores of Hawaii, the most important island of the Sandwich group.

In olden times there was, so ran the legend, a god in Hawaii called Lono, who, on departing from its shores, promised to return some day in an island bearing cocoa-nut trees, dogs, and swine. When Cook appeared, the people immediately concluded that Lono had come back to them on his floating isle. They rejoiced greatly, and the captain was worshipped with divine honours. Crowds flocked to see him, and when he took his walks on shore men and women made way for him, prostrating them-

selves till he passed, and then springing up to follow and gaze upon his form. Soon they got tired of having constantly to get off and on their knees; so ten thousand natives were to be seen crawling on all-fours either after Lono or out of his way. The captain, though he wondered at these strange proceedings, made no objections, for his worshippers were forced by their priests to bring him abundant offerings of pigs and fruit. His worn-out sailors grew amazingly fat and sleek. They were in clover and they did not neglect their opportunities.)

As the weeks rolled by, the natives began to feel that they were paying a heavy price for the entertainment of Lono and his voracious followers. No doubt they also found the form of adoration fatiguing and monotonous. They were therefore not sorry to see Lono depart, and they were far from pleased to see him return after a week's absence. Cook had come back to repair damages done to his ships in a gale. He was not welcomed, there were quarrels, and one day a boat was stolen. The captain went on shore intending to bring the king on board and keep him there till the boat was restored. The king would not come, and his followers attacked Cook, who was stabbed in the back and killed before his men could come to the rescue. Thus, in a petty squabble the world lost one of its greatest navigators, and England the man who planted her flag in Australia and New Zealand, and found for her many of the fair and sunny isles that spangle the blue waters of the Pacific.

LXI.—THE FIRST SETTLEMENT IN AUSTRALIA
(1788–1792).

In January, 1788, a small fleet bearing seven hundred convicts and a guard of about two hundred marines arrived in Botany Bay. Captain Phillip, a gallant naval officer, who had been appointed governor, did not consider the bay a suitable spot for a settlement, and judged it advisable to examine Port Jackson, which, it will be remembered, Cook named without exploring. "We got into Port Jackson early in the afternoon," wrote Phillip, "and had the satisfaction of finding the finest harbour in the world, in which a thousand sail of the line may ride in perfect security. The different coves were examined with all possible expedition. I fixed on one that had the best spring of water and in which the ships can anchor close to the shore." This he named Sydney, after Lord Sydney, then secretary of state, and thus was chosen the site of the fair capital of New South Wales.

Phillip returned with the good news to Botany Bay, and gave orders for removing the settlement. On the morning when the tedious work of removal was to take place, the colonists were startled by the appearance of two strange sail, the last objects they expected to see in such a remote place as Botany Bay. These were French vessels under the command of M. de la Perouse, who had been despatched by his government on a voyage of discovery. It had been long rumoured that the French wished to establish themselves in New South Wales, and it may be that La Perouse came to spy out the land. If so, he was too late by six days, and after cruising about for a short time, he departed. Fears of French occupa-

tion continued for many years to harass the minds of the English authorities, and the desire to anticipate their rivals led them to hasten the work of colonization.

No time was lost in transferring the settlement to Sydney Cove, and when this was done, the governor assembled the members of the community and proclaimed the establishment of the new government. To honour the occasion salutes were fired, and "each soldier had a pint of porter, every convict under displeasure was pardoned, each man had a pint of rum, and each woman half a pint; and wood being plenty, they made bonfires in the evening". These convict men and women must have presented a strange and interesting sight as they stood celebrating, on the sandy shores of Sydney Cove, the foundation of a great colony. What the poor jail-birds, fresh from English prisons, thought at the moment we know not. If they rejoiced in this dawn of a new life, thus heralded by rum and bonfires, their joy was destined to be short-lived.

From the start the young colony suffered from the indifference to its welfare shown by the home government. In spite of the entreaties of the governor, no efforts were made to send out free immigrants skilled in agriculture. On his arrival, Phillip wrote: "If fifty farmers were sent out with their families, they would do more in one year in rendering this colony independent of the mother country as to provisions than a thousand convicts". But instead of farmers, the government for many years continued to send fresh batches of convicts into the settlement. Two years after his arrival, poor Phillip again wrote: "Experience has taught me how difficult it is to make men industrious who have passed their lives in habits of vice and indolence. In some cases it has been



Governor Phillip's Speech at Sydney Cove.

found impossible; neither kindness nor severity has had any effect. There are many who dread punishment less than they fear labour."

The settlement had been provided at the start with provisions for two years. Three years passed without any further supplies, and as the soil round the cove was found useless for purposes of corn-growing, the settlers had to face the prospect of famine. Reduced rations were issued to each person daily, and a ship was sent to Batavia for supplies. The colony was brought to such straits that government work had to be suspended because the convicts were too weak to perform their tasks. Some perished from starvation. "I was passing the provision store", writes an officer of marines, "when a man with a wild, haggard countenance, who had just received his daily pittance to carry home, came out. His faltering gait and eager, devouring eye led me to watch him; and he had not proceeded ten steps before he fell. I ordered him to be carried to the hospital, where, when he arrived, he was found to be dead."

Each day the unhappy settlers scanned the horizon in the hopes of sighting the ship from Batavia. One evening a sail was seen. Men, women, and children hurried to the beach, wild with joy, and congratulating each other on the prospect of a square meal. The ship arrived; it landed two hundred and twenty-two female convicts—it was not the ship from Batavia; it brought but few supplies, and its captain announced to the settlers that a store-ship sent from England had been wrecked on the way.

Fortunately a few weeks afterwards a large supply of provisions arrived, part of which Phillip sent to Norfolk Island, where a branch settlement had been planted. It

also had passed through trying times, and had only been saved by the providential arrival of flocks of sea-birds in the nesting season. Thousands of these unsuspecting "birds of providence" were captured nightly, and their flesh and their eggs served to keep the settlers alive till the arrival of supplies from Sydney brought a change of diet. The latter colony was soon again reduced to a state of starvation by the appearance of another batch of convicts, but once more a store-ship entered the bay when the situation was becoming critical.

In 1792 Phillip, whose health had been broken by the weight of responsibility placed upon him, returned home. Though neglected by the home government, obstructed by the insubordination of his officers, constantly faced by the prospect of failure, he had throughout shown wonderful pluck and perseverance. In the hours of need he allowed himself no more than was given to the meanest convict, he treated the natives with humanity, and if his example had been followed much bloodshed might have been spared. Amid all the trials that beset the colony he was ever sustained by the firm belief "that this country will prove the most valuable acquisition Great Britain ever made". Phillip ranks among the greatest of the builders of the Empire, and his name should not be forgotten.

LXII.—CONVICTS AND NATIVES (1803–1830).

In 1803 several convicts were sent from England to Port Phillip, at the northern extremity of which Melbourne, the capital of Victoria, now stands. Collins, the commander, was unfavourably impressed with the place,

and obtained permission to transfer the settlement to Van Diemen's Land. While he was still at Port Phillip some of his convicts, tired of hard labour and the rope's end, made their escape to the bush. Like many before their time and afterwards, the fugitives found that they had jumped out of the frying-pan into the fire. When their small stock of provisions came to an end, hunger drove them to the sea-shore, where they managed to live for a time on shell-fish. They soon grew weary of this diet, and at last, concluding that to be "fed and flogged" was better than freedom with shell-fish, they all, with the exception of one named Buckley, decided to return.

Buckley, a man of great strength and gigantic stature, started northwards, crossing rivers, and pushing his way doggedly through scrub and forest into an unknown country. For months he wandered, keeping himself alive with shell-fish and berries, living the life of a wild beast, ever in fear of falling into the hands of the natives, and hoping still to find his way to Sydney. One day when creeping, gaunt and famished, through the brushwood, he saw a mound in which was a spear stuck upright. He drew the spear out, and, staggering on, lay down to sleep.

Beneath this mound lay buried the bones of a great native warrior. The blacks believed that their warriors were changed after death into white men. When, therefore, next morning, Buckley was found, spear in hand, by the tribesmen of the deceased, they easily recognized in him the late Murrangwik, alive again and white. They carried him off to their village, where a great feast was held in his honour. The women beat drums till they fainted, and the men cut themselves till they bled, so extreme was their delight in beholding Murrangwik thus happily restored to life.

For over thirty years Buckley lived among this filthy and degraded people, sharing in its wars and councils, and having ample opportunities of observing its manners and customs. The native was happiest when gorging himself, and his choicest food was human flesh. As this delicacy had to be obtained at the expense of another tribe, wars were frequent. It may be readily imagined that Buckley did not feel at his ease in such society, and that he hailed with joy the announcement of the arrival of white men at Port Phillip.

He started to seek them, and found them, but could not make himself understood; he had forgotten his own language. The white men laughed at his gibberish and his wild appearance, and sailing away left him upon the shore miserable and in despair. Soon others came, who received him and helped him to recover his mother-tongue. They were the pioneers sent by Batman, who is considered the founder of the colony of Victoria, though as a matter of fact the brothers Henty were already settled at Portland Bay. Buckley's story excited great interest; he received a pardon and lived to a ripe old age.

In the same year (1803) that Collins was transporting his human cargo from Port Phillip to Van Diemen's Land, a batch of convicts was sent to the island from New South Wales. To this double immigration of jail-birds the colony now known as Tasmania owes its foundation. At first the young settlement thrived, but evil days were in store for it. First an unfortunate encounter with the natives led to a state of war, which was marked by great cruelty on both sides. Then the failure of the crops in New South Wales reduced the Van Diemen's Land colony, which was not yet self-supporting, to the verge of starvation.

In a few years came better times, and in 1816 the settlers were producing more corn than they needed; but they were now threatened by a new and more terrible danger. Numbers of convicts had escaped to the bush, bands of them roamed over the country, plundering the farmers and often carrying their audacity so far as to attack and loot villages. The most desperate of these ruffians was one Michael Howe, the chief of a formidable gang which he kept in order by a liberal expenditure of blows and bullets. He was loved by a native girl, Black Mary, who followed him everywhere, and saved him more than once from the gallows.

One day a party of soldiers lay in ambush hoping to catch some of the band. As the bush-rangers approached, Black Mary scented danger and fled with Howe, closely pursued. At last, fainting from fatigue, she fell, and her brutal lover, thinking she might tell tales if captured, turned and shot her as she lay. Black Mary was only wounded, and, justly incensed, she led the soldiers on the track of the bush-rangers. Four were caught, but Howe still remained at large. In time the rest of the band was gradually hunted down, and their chief was forced to flee to the mountains, where he lived a lonely life, tortured by his conscience and haunted in horrible dreams by the ghosts of those he had murdered. He led the life of a wolf, and at last, like a wolf, he was tracked to his lair and knocked on the head.

When the bush-rangers were put down the colonists had peace and began to prosper. Pure merino sheep were imported, agriculture advanced, and the fertility of the soil attracted men and money to the country. Better laws were passed for the management of the convicts, who still, however, managed to escape and do much mis-

chief. The most serious difficulty the colonists had now to face was the continued hostility of the natives. These poor wretches, grossly maltreated by convicts and outlying farmers, naturally avenged themselves by running their spears through the body of any white man that fell into their power.

After trying humane measures in vain, Governor Arthur in 1830 drew a cordon across the country and attempted to drive all the natives into Tasman's Peninsula. At the end of the journey only two had been captured. Then a settler called Robinson went boldly among them, gained their esteem, and persuaded most of them to emigrate to an island off the coast. Robinson was only a poor bricklayer; yet by kindness and tact he succeeded where the governor with his officials, his soldiers, and his money had failed. This bricklayer was a rare and wonderful man, and his name deserves to be remembered. But the Tasmanian native was doomed; he pined away in his new home, and the race is now totally extinct.

LXIII.—EXPLORATION IN AUSTRALIA (1813–1862).

The exploration of the Australian interior began with the discovery of the fertile and well-watered pasture lands that lay on the farther side of the Blue Mountains. Into these pastures came the Sydney squatters driving before them herds of sheep and cattle. Soon all the best land was occupied, and the explorer had to push his way still farther into the interior. His success depended upon his finding districts where the supply of water was permanent. When water failed, the fierce summer sun baked

the soil, withered the grass, and strewed the plain with the bones of sheep and cattle. Every explorer, therefore, turned his attention to the rivers. For a time they were puzzled by the fact that all the rivers flowed inland, and it was thought that they entered and lost themselves in a vast central swamp.

The first great attempt to solve the riddle was made by Sturt in 1829. He and a few followers rowed down the Murrumbidgee with the object of finding its unknown destination. The journey was a dangerous one, for the stream rushed at intervals through gloomy and narrow gorges where the water foamed round rocks and fallen trees. Many a time the boat barely escaped destruction. Day after day the explorers were carried ever farther into a strange new land, and as they went, dark inquisitive faces peered at them from the forest on either bank. Never before had these Australian natives seen a white man, and they showed their curiosity not only by gazing upon the strangers, but by pawing them all over with a familiarity that it was not prudent to resent. At last the stream shot the boat into a broad river, the Murray. Sturt and his men were borne along between pleasant tree-dotted plains, they passed the mouth of a great tributary, the Darling, and finally they found themselves gliding on the peaceful waters of Lake Alexandrina. At its southern end was a bar, and beyond it sparkled the ocean.

Sturt's discovery solved the problem of the river-system in South-east Australia. Some years later Mitchell explored the country south of the Murray and brought back wonderful reports of its fertility. It was not long before the ever-advancing squatter entered into possession. The crack of the stock-whip and the tread

of countless hoofs were heard in forests and pastures where hitherto the black had hunted and fought at his ease. But the problem of the interior still remained to be solved. In 1840 Eyre started from Adelaide to make the attempt. He was stopped by the great salt-lakes. Beneath the white and glittering crust of salt lay deep black mud and treacherous brine-pits, in which men and horses plunged and struggled at every step. Unwilling to return without having achieved something worth doing, Eyre, dismissing his followers with the exception of one white and three blacks, started westward along the coast in the hope of reaching Albany.

The sufferings of the little band of explorers were terrible. Before them stretched never-ending ridges and hillocks of hot loose sand, on their right stood the impenetrable scrub, and many feet below on the left the ocean billows thundered at the foot of the cliffs. In the day they were scorched by the sun, and they were chilled to the bone at night. Each stage of their march was a feverish race for water, which could only be found at rare intervals by digging in the sand. To make their misery more complete, two of the blacks turned traitors, murdered the white servant and fled with most of the provisions. Eyre and the remaining native were only saved by the appearance of a ship, on which they were received and fed. Landing, they pushed on and finally reached Albany, having accomplished a wonderful feat of endurance and explored 1500 miles of coast-line.

A few years later Sturt pushed into the interior, and after getting north of Cooper's Creek was stopped by the Stony Desert. The heat was so great that his men were forced to seek shelter by burrowing in the ground. Sturt himself came back worn to a skeleton and blinded by the

glare of the sand-deserts. More disastrous still was Leichardt's attempt to cross the continent from Moreton Bay, in Queensland, to the Swan River settlement. He and his men were never heard of again.

These reverses and the discovery of the gold-fields turned public attention from the mysterious interior, till the necessity of finding fresh sheep-runs led to the various attempts of Stuart to cross the continent from Adelaide to the north. He went by way of Central Mount Stuart, and though he did not at first reach the north coast, he proved that the interior was not one dreary waste, but that in it there were to be found many fair and fertile districts.

In 1860 the famous expedition under Burke started from Melbourne with the intention of marching north to the Gulf of Carpentaria. At Cooper's Creek Burke left most of the party behind with instructions to wait three months for his return, and taking one horse and six of the twelve camels specially imported for the expedition, started off with Wills and two followers. After entering the rich tropical country of the north, he and Wills hurried on by themselves and reached without accident the shores of the gulf. Turning, they rejoined their companions and set out for Cooper's Creek. Their troubles now began; their provisions were exhausted, a camel and then the horse were sacrificed. One of the men died, and the survivors, worn out and emaciated, reached Cooper's Creek only to find that their friends had quitted it the same morning. On a tree they saw carved the word DIG, and they were not long in unearthing a welcome supply of food. Thinking it useless to try and overtake the main party, the explorers made for the nearest settlement.

The settlement was farther off than they expected, and when the last camel was eaten they were forced to return. The limits of human endurance had now been passed. Wills was the first to succumb, and he was left in a rude hut, while the others staggered on to seek the help of some friendly natives who had already shown them kindness. On the way poor Burke had to give in; he lay down to die, and the faithful King, after watching by his side till the end, went wearily on, and finding the natives, was fed by them till he was discovered by a search party. Later the bodies of Burke and Wills were found and taken sorrowfully to Melbourne, where they were buried with public honours.

About the same time Stuart returned from his fifth expedition, having reached the north coast at the mouth of the river Adelaide, which had long before been thus christened without any thought of the Adelaide in the south from which Stuart had started. His success led to the laying down of the telegraph wire from Port Darwin to Adelaide and the cession of the Northern Territory to South Australia. With the expeditions of Burke and Stuart the heroic age of Australian exploration ends. The general character of the interior is now well known, and it only remains to explore it more thoroughly and unearth its hidden treasures.

LXIV.—THE DISCOVERY OF GOLD (1851).

In 1848 a man called Hargraves left New South Wales and went to seek his fortune in the gold-field of California. There the gold-bearing rock and soil seemed to him very similar in appearance to the rocks and soil

round his home in Australia. The idea haunted him; he went back, and on reaching the spots which the Californian diggings had recalled to his mind, found gold in large quantities. Others before him had been aware of the existence of the precious metal in Australia, but it was his discovery in February, 1851, that directed universal attention to the fact.

A few weeks later there were a thousand men at the Summerhill diggings, and they were followed by thousands of others burning to wrest the precious metal from the soil in which it had lain undisturbed for countless centuries. The most cautious were possessed with the gold fever, and they gave up their occupations to join in the rush. No wonder men's heads were turned when they heard of lumps of gold worth £4000 being picked up by men who had previously been happy in the possession of forty pence.

Everybody expected to make his fortune in a week, and many were not disappointed. The less lucky had to be satisfied with gaining a few pounds a day, and no doubt they grumbled. They had, however, less cause to grumble than the unhappy farmers and squatters, who were left by their labourers to contemplate with dismay the ruin of their crops and the neglect of their cattle. Few cared to herd cattle or harvest corn when in imagination they saw their fellows loading their pockets with nuggets.

In their hunger for gold people quitted the occupations concerned with the production of the food-supply. The arrival of immigrants very soon increased the number of mouths to be fed, and the result was that the commonest articles of consumption became scarce and dear throughout the colony. This state of things did not, however,

last long, for when the surface gold was exhausted many who had not been fortunate gave up the search and turned their hands to other work.

A few months after Hargrave's discovery, still richer finds were made at Ballarat, Mount Alexander, and at



Gold-miners' Bark-hut.

other places in Victoria. Thousands of men of every colour and condition came from all parts of the globe to grovel in the golden soil. In the colony itself servants left their masters to attend to their own wants, sailors deserted their ships, and most of the bad characters that infested Australia quitted their haunts, to the great satisfaction of their neighbours, and hastened to the gold-fields, where they found full scope for the exercise of their vices. At the end of 1852 there were over 70,000

at the diggings. Later there were 40,000 at Ballarat, another 25,000 tore up the soil round Mount Alexander, and fully 40,000 were gathered at Bendigo. The Governor of Victoria found himself thus called upon to control with the small force of police at his disposal a multitude of immigrants, among whom were hundreds of the most lawless and reckless scoundrels on the face of the earth.

As in New South Wales, all diggers were expected to pay each month a license fee of thirty shillings, but in Victoria, where so many men were collected in small areas, it was impossible to exact all the fees. On the arrival of the police the digger who had no license, and preferred to be without one, easily escaped detection. The more honest resented being pestered by the naturally suspicious officials. The mode of taxation was, moreover, unjust, for it exacted the same amount from men who had failed to strike gold and from men who were rapidly becoming millionaires.

Riots were frequent, and the difficulties of the police were increased by the exploits of those who, tired of working at the diggings, had betaken themselves to the more congenial occupation of waylaying and seizing other people's gold on its way to the coast. The situation became critical when the government, finding that the receipts did not cover expenses, proposed to raise the license to £3. The proposal roused such a storm of indignation that no attempt was made to put the measure into execution.

Another proposal of the governor was met in the same spirit, and he again yielded. This surrender was regarded as a sign of weakness, and the diggers, confident in their own strength, became more turbulent than ever. They had just grievances, the chief being that, though taxed,

they had no share in the management of their own affairs; but the wilder spirits among them went too far, and tried to gain their ends by violence. This policy was defeated by the new governor, Hotham, who soon made it clear that he meant to maintain law and order. A strong force of soldiers and police was sent to the diggings, and at Eureka Hill armed and intrenched miners were attacked and routed. This summary punishment brought them to their senses, and the cause of discontent was subsequently removed by an act which gave a share in the government of the colony to every digger in possession of a miner's right, a document giving him the right to occupy land for mining purposes on payment of one pound a year.

Rushes to reported gold-fields in other parts of Australia took place, but they did not always end successfully. In 1858, 15,000 men hurried to a place called Canoona, on the banks of the Fitzroy River in Queensland, to find that they had come on a fool's errand. Many had spent all their money in paying their way to the new El Dorado. They were only saved from starvation by the charity of the governments of New South Wales and Victoria. Some who had the means bought land, settled down as farmers, and founded the now flourishing town of Rockhampton.

In this very district, and not far from the town of Rockhampton, stood a gray uninteresting-looking hill which was bought by a young farmer for grazing purposes. Finding more rock than grass on its surface, he sold it for £640, at the rate of a pound an acre, to the brothers Morgan. They discovered that their hill was a mass of gold ore. It was sold for eight million pounds, and to-day Mount Morgan is held to be worth double the amount.

Rich gold-fields have been discovered since, and may be discovered again, but never has there been anything like the feverish excitement that was aroused by the great finds of 1851. This date marks the turning-point in the history of the Australian colonies. The gold-fields brought them not only wealth but increase of population, and among the immigrants were numbers of able and enterprising men who roused the settlers into a fresh and more vigorous life and inspired them with larger ambitions.

LXV.—SIR GEORGE GREY (b. 1812 —).

No man during this century has had a larger share in the making of colonial history than Sir George Grey. In 1839 he led an exploring expedition into the unknown country watered by the rivers Fitzroy and Glenelg in West Australia. Two years later, though only a young army captain twenty-nine years of age, he was appointed governor of South Australia. He found the colony deeply in debt. The previous governor had borrowed money for the erection of public works in order to supply a means of livelihood to a crowd of starving unemployed. When the English government refused to make itself responsible for any further loans, those among the settlers who had the means fled from the poverty-stricken colony, leaving it to its fate. Captain Grey, on his arrival, saw that extreme measures would have to be taken. He cut down all public expenses, and in so doing reduced the incomes of a large number of persons who were in government employments. For a time he was the most unpopular man in South Australia. but in spite of violent

opposition and unstinted abuse, he had the courage to go his own way unmoved. It was well for the colony that he had this courage.

The wisdom of the young governor's policy soon became apparent. Numbers of men thrown out of employment by his refusal to proceed with any public works that were not of immediate use went to supply the demand for labour on the farms. More land was cultivated, and the settlers began to thrive. Still, the expenditure of the colony was far in excess of its revenue, and Captain Grey was wondering how he could meet the difficulty when a curious and unexpected event relieved him of all further anxiety.

One day a man was driving a team of bullocks down a steep slope of the Mount Lofty range. The wagon dragged in its wake a heavy log, which had been fastened to it to serve as a break. This log proved to be a fairy wand, for as it bumped along, tearing up the soil, a fragment of glittering rock was exposed. The driver picked it up and took it to Adelaide. It was found that the log had struck a rich mine of silver and silver lead. Shortly afterwards the Kapunda and Burra Burra copper mines were discovered. The colony grew rich and prosperous, and the public revenue, under the governor's careful management, steadily increased. The man who had lately been the object of virulent abuse now became the popular favourite, and in 1845 his departure for New Zealand caused deep-felt regret.

Governor Grey's experiences during his first period of office in New Zealand were much like those he had passed through in South Australia. He arrived to find the colony in money difficulties, and many of the Maori tribes up in arms. Disputes about the purchase of land were

the chief cause of the native war. The governor set about the work of reform with his usual energy and disregard for public opinion. He took measures to regulate the purchase of land, and restored to the natives several acres to which he thought the settlers had no just claim. These acts were naturally received with a storm of abuse

by those who found themselves with diminished estates.

The governor showed the same energy in putting down the native revolt, but having once shown his strength he endeavoured to gain their friendship by a policy of conciliation. His efforts were successful, peace was restored, new settlers were attracted to the colony, commerce and agriculture were encouraged, and in 1853 the gover-



A Maori Chief.

nor, now Sir George Grey, on quitting New Zealand for South Africa, received a public ovation, in which the Maoris themselves took a prominent part. He left many enemies behind him among the settlers, but no one could deny that he had shown singular ability in steering the colony through a very critical period of its history.

In 1860 several Maori tribes again took up arms. The war originated, as usual, in disputes about land purchase, but, apart from this, the warlike natives were beginning

to realize that the land of their forefathers was passing into the hands of strangers. After several skirmishes, in which the Maoris showed wonderful bravery and considerable military skill, a truce was made which left matters undecided. At this moment Sir George Grey again arrived as governor.

Since his departure great changes had taken place; the colony was now self-governing, and its parliament did not allow the governor a free hand. He found himself soon involved in disputes with his ministers and with the home government, while the Maoris on their side were slaughtering and scaring the settlers and fighting stubborn battles with the regular troops. Their bravery, and the skill they displayed in the defence of their cleverly-constructed forts or *pahs*, won the admiration of their enemies. Though guilty of many atrocities, they were foemen not to be despised, and on several occasions they gave proofs of a humanity rare among half-civilized races.

An instance of their humanity is afforded by the following curious missive, sent by the Tauranga Maoris to the commander of the English force:—"To the Colonel. Salutations to you. . . . Friend, do you give heed to our laws for regulating the fight. 1. If wounded or captured whole, and the butt of the musket or hilt of the sword be turned to me, he will be saved. 2. If any Pakeha (white man) being a soldier shall be travelling unarmed and meet me, he will be captured and handed over to the directors of the land. 3. The soldier who flees, being carried away by his fears, and goes to the house of his priest with his gun (even though carrying arms), will be saved: I will not go there. 4. The unarmed Pakehas, women and children, will be spared. The end. These

are binding laws for Tauranga." After the war Sir G. Grey complimented this tribe on the honourable manner in which they had carried out the above conditions. When the Maoris were beaten they bore no ill-will to the conquerors. "We fought you at Koheroa," said one of their chiefs, "and fought you well; we fought you at Rangiriri, and we fought you well; and now we are friends, *ake, ake, ake* (for ever, for ever, for ever)." The friendship of such men is worth having.

The war with the Maoris dragged on for about ten years, and before it came to a conclusion Sir George Grey, after a violent dispute with the home authorities, was recalled to England. He went back once more to New Zealand, and lived for a time in the colony as a private citizen. Later he was elected a member of the colonial parliament, and became prime minister. In 1894 he came to England, and retired from public life after a long and active career. He has been governor of three colonies: South Australia, New Zealand, and Cape Colony, and premier of New Zealand. He has rendered splendid services to the empire, greater services than any man now living. It is by men of his stamp that the empire has been built up and made strong and prosperous.

LXVI.—FIJI AND THE PACIFIC.

Innumerable little islands, remnants of some vast continent now long submerged, dot the blue waters of the Pacific. Many are merely the peaks of volcanic mountains rising from the bottom of the sea; some active, belching forth smoke and rocks and streams of lava, others extinct or dormant. Many are fair and fertile,

covered with palms and tropical plants, warm and pleasant isles of paradise, girt by coral reefs inclosing peaceful lagoons, where the rays of the sun, streaming through the blue water, flash upon the brilliant scales of countless fishes, and light up luxuriant coral forests and submarine gardens of shells and sea-flowers.

Men of various colours and various tongues people these happy isles. Some are warlike, and, like the Maoris of the past, delight in human flesh and human sacrifices; others are peaceful, content to live and dream and bask in the sun; all are indolent, and they work no more than is necessary. Several of the island groups have passed into the hands of Europeans, and it is probable that in time the remaining groups will be annexed by one or other of the great powers which are now engaged in the scramble for colonies.

The most important of the British Pacific groups is the Fiji Archipelago, which consists of about eighty inhabited, and of more than one hundred and fifty uninhabited islands. Two only are of any size, the larger Viti Levu, being equal in area to six or seven English counties. Fiji was discovered by Tasman, and visited later by Cook. It was afterwards visited by traders and missionaries, the latter meeting with no success. At the beginning of this century a number of convicts managed to escape from New South Wales and make their way to the islands, where they entered with zeal into the quarrels of warring chieftains. Their prowess in battle was soon recognized, and they themselves became chieftains.

To the ex-convicts this new life was a pleasant change after their experiences in Australia, where hard labour and the rope's end had been their daily lot. But it did not last long. The Fijians were cannibals, and the foes.

of the convicts no doubt hungered for a morsel of white flesh. One after another the adventurers fell in battle, and were eaten. One, Patrick Connor, alone survived, and managed to live on for thirty years. The manner



Natives of Tonga and Fiji.

of his death is unknown. It is probable that he also became food for Fijians.

The next event of importance was the landing of the missionaries, who succeeded in converting the majority of the islanders to Christianity. Unfortunately, the missionaries were followed by a number of English traders and adventurers of the worst type. They en-

couraged wars between the chiefs in order to gain their own selfish ends, and they succeeded in making life in the islands so intolerable that the king, Thankombau, offered his dominions to Queen Victoria. The deed of cession was not signed till 1874. As a token of his allegiance, the king sent to Her Majesty his great war-club, the largest in the islands. "It is profusely adorned with silver ornaments, the handle entwined with fern leaves and silver doves, and the top surmounted by a massive crown." Both the club and a magnificent bowl are now kept with the Christie collection in London.

The first governor, Sir Arthur Gordon, reached the colony in 1875, and found it in a sad state. A third of the population, 40,000, had been swept away by the ravages of measles, a disease unknown to the islanders till it was accidentally introduced by a British man-of-war. As the natives would take none of the ordinary precautions, they fell easy victims to the scourge. Their misery was increased by unusually heavy rainfalls, which turned whole districts into swamps and caused a famine. The living were too weak to do any work: they had not even the strength to bury their dead. In their distress many believed that their gods were punishing them for having adopted Christianity, and for having abandoned their land to the strangers. They threw off their allegiance, took up arms, attacked Christian villages, and fortified their own villages with earth-works and bamboo fences.

The faithful Christian Fijians responded readily to the appeal of the governor. They came in bands to salute him before taking the field. They were strong, fine men, dressed alike in white drapery, with kilts of black, glossy water-weed. They were armed with old muskets, liable

to explode at any moment. With these they marched into the lawn in front of the governor's house, and performed a war-dance. "They advanced, two or three at a time, throwing themselves into wild attitudes, brandishing their weapons, which formerly would have been spears or clubs, and trying who could make the most valiant boast concerning his intended prowess. One cried, 'I go to the mountains, my feet shall eat grass'. This was to express his eager speed. 'This is only a musket,' cried another, flourishing his weapon, 'but I carry it.' Said the next: 'We go to war, what hinders *that we fill all the ovens?*' I fear that man hankered after the flesh-pots of Fiji! The second company came up stately, and only one acted as spokesman, 'This is Bau, that is enough'. Others gambolled about, extolling their (imaginary) clubs by name, as in olden days." These fervent warriors were true to their words. They helped to conquer the rebels, but they were, of course, not allowed to fill their ovens with the bodies of the slain.

Under Sir Arthur Gordon's wise rule the colony flourished. The native chiefs were employed as government officials, and they and the Fijians generally appear to be happy and contented with their lot. Sugar, coffee, and tobacco are among the chief products, and every year imports and exports increase. The position of the Fijian islands, their fine harbours, their splendid climate and rich soil, render them a very valuable possession of the British crown. It is to be noted that representatives of Fiji took part in the discussions of the council which met to consider the question of Australasian Federation, and the islands will probably form part of the great Australasian Dominion of the future.

The British possess other small islands in the Pacific, among which are the Antipodes, Sporades, Cook or Hervey Isles, Norfolk Island, Phoenix Islands, Suwar-row Islands, Union Islands, and Pitcairn. The natives of the Union Islands, when first discovered, possessed neither defensive nor offensive weapons. They lived in brotherly peace. It was the arrival of the civilized white man that first caused them to appreciate the use of arms.

Pitcairn has an interesting history. It is the home of the descendants of the mutineers who turned Captain Bligh—afterwards governor of New South Wales—adrift with part of his crew in an open boat. Some of these mutineers of the *Bounty* remained in Tahiti; others took native wives and servants and sailed to Pitcairn, where they lived unknown to the world from 1780 to 1808. The island has now a population of over a hundred, and there are no happier people in the world than these descendants of the mutineers and their Tahiti wives.

LXVII.—AUSTRALIA AND NEW ZEALAND TO-DAY (1897).

Oh, Australia! fair and lovely, empress of the southern sea,
What a glorious fame awaits thee in the future's history!
Land of wealth and land of beauty, tropic suns and arctic snows,
Where the splendid noontide blazes, where the raging storm-wind
blows;

Be thou proud and be thou daring, ever true to God and man;
In all evil be to rearward, in all good take thou the van!
Only let thy hands be stainless, let thy life be pure and true,
And a destiny awaits thee such as nation never knew.

—Agnes Neale.

These closing lines of the poem "Australia" promise to the island-continent a future that will surely be hers

if her sons remain true to the noblest traditions of their race. They occupy a country about as large as the United States, and twenty-six times the size of the United Kingdom. The population does not at present exceed four million; there is therefore plenty of room in which to prosper and multiply. The Australians not only possess a continent, but are the sole and undisputed masters of it. Their boundaries on all sides are washed by ocean waves, and as long as the race to which they belong rules these waves they need fear no invasion. In this they are more fortunate than all our other great colonies and dependencies, with the exception of New Zealand, which enjoys the same advantages of position as Australia.

In North America, it is true, the English race holds sway, but the race itself is at present divided. The English in Canada have twice repelled invasion from the United States, and, if needs be, they are prepared to do so again. Let us hope that the need will never arise, for no greater calamity could befall than a war between two nations speaking the same tongue and sprung from the same stock. If they fought they would fight well, and victor and vanquished would alike be sufferers.

In India, again, we find a mere handful of English ruling millions of men speaking different languages, worshipping different gods, and held together only by common allegiance to the Empress. The English come and go, they are never likely to settle in great numbers under an Indian sun. Moreover, this dependency is open to attack from powerful neighbours. Lastly, in Africa we share the soil with other nations, and with them we may one day be forced to come into conflict.

Australia and New Zealand are, therefore, in an excep-

tional position. In the former there is a straggling and insignificant population of natives, and in the latter a splendid race of Maoris, whose fine qualities make them a source not of weakness but of strength to the empire. Favourably placed as they are by nature, it is not surprising that the Australasian colonies should resent any encroachments of foreign powers on islands near their coasts. In 1883 an intercolonial conference passed a resolution to the effect, that "the further acquisition of dominion in the Pacific, south of the equator, by any foreign power, would be highly detrimental to the safety and well-being of the British possessions in Australasia, and injurious to the interests of the empire". At the time when the colonists thus unmistakably announced their wishes, they had but two foreign neighbours, the Dutch in New Guinea and the French in New Caledonia. The latter contains a population of 62,000, and is used as a penal settlement. From it a large number of convicts escape to the mainland, and they are far from welcome.

The Dutch occupy only a part of New Guinea, and it was the unclaimed portion that the Australian colonists were eager to possess. The island lies close to the north of Queensland, and might, they thought, become a source of danger if surrendered to a great foreign power. While the question was being debated between the colonies and the home government, Prince Bismarck stated his intention of annexing a portion of the island. Lord Granville, then secretary of state, without regarding the wishes of the Australians, offered no opposition beyond reserving the south-eastern portion for Great Britain. His decision pleased neither party. It irritated the German chancellor, who was not satisfied with what he had got, and it aroused the greatest indignation among the colonists,

who felt that their interests had been grossly overlooked.

The same policy of hesitation was adopted in the case of the New Hebrides. In 1887 they were placed under the joint protection of England and France, an arrangement which left matters much as they were before. In order to be ready for emergencies the Australasian colonies have established small armies, erected coast-defence works, and have built a few ships to strengthen the British fleet in their waters. On this fleet their immunity from attack in the future depends.

The Australian colonies, New Zealand, Tasmania, British New Guinea, and Fiji will no doubt before long unite to form the Dominion of Australia. At present the colonies manage their affairs independently of one another. Their constitutional growth has not yet reached the stage arrived at by Canada, where, as we have seen, the affairs common to all the provinces are discussed by a central parliament under a governor-general appointed by the crown.

The steady growth of the movement in favour of federation in Australia is greatly due to the efforts of Sir Henry Parkes, but it was not till 1897, a year for many reasons memorable in the annals of the British Empire, that the question was thoroughly discussed in a conference of delegates representing all the colonies except Queensland. The question of federation was put to the vote in all the colonies in 1898, and a large majority was cast in its favour by all but New South Wales. This is but a temporary set-back, and soon Australasia, united and strong, will march all the more surely to meet the destiny that awaits her.

LXVIII.—THE BRITISH EMPIRE (1898).

In 1837 the British Empire had an area of about eight million square miles, it has now an area of over eleven millions. In 1837 it contained a population of 168 million, it has now a population of 400 million, of which fifty million are of British race. At the beginning of the queen's reign the British population did not exceed twenty-six million; it has therefore been nearly doubled. The next largest empire of modern times is that ruled by the Czar of Russia. It has an area of eight and a half million square miles and a population of about 130 million. It is, therefore, a poor second. The largest empire of ancient times was that ruled by the Romans. It was one-sixth the size of the British Empire, and its population was not half so numerous. If we glance back through the history of the marvellous growth of our empire we shall be able to discover some of the causes of our success.

In the first place, our two chief rivals in the race for colonial supremacy made terrible mistakes. Spain, the first in the field, regarded her possessions as so many gold and silver mines out of which to extract wealth for herself. Further, she did not allow her colonists to have any share in the management of their affairs, but inflicted upon them all the vices of her own system of government. With but few exceptions they threw off her yoke, and to-day Cuba, the last and fairest of her possessions, is on the point of winning freedom by the aid of men of British race. France, our most serious rival, was forced to yield to us the empire she was creating, because she attempted to do too much; she wished to be at the same time mistress of Europe, mistress of the seas, and mistress of America

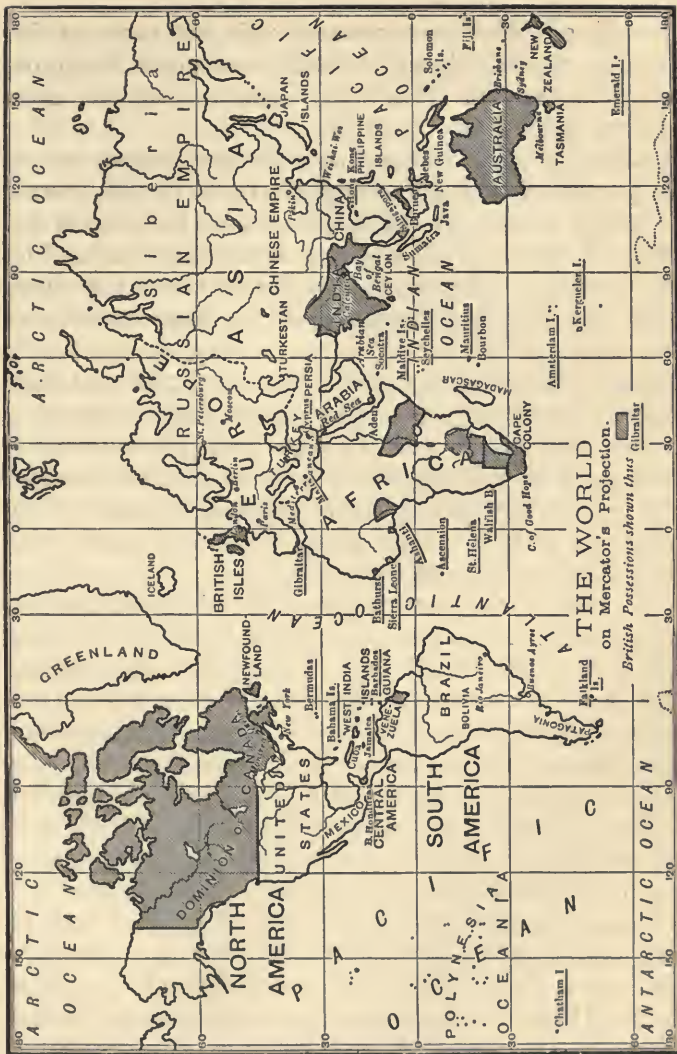
and India. Her vast ambition was the cause of her failure. Portugal and Holland were never dangerous rivals, because they were too small to bear the great burden of empire.

Secondly, at the crises in our colonial history men of exceptional ability—Chatham, Wolfe, Clive and Warren Hastings, and others—have sprung up to turn defeat into victory. On one occasion, the greatest Englishman of his time, George Washington, chanced to be on the wrong side, and the result was that we lost the American colonies. But this loss, and our subsequent experiences in Canada, taught us a lesson that we have not forgotten; it taught us that the Briton in the colonies, just like the Briton at home, likes to manage his own affairs in his own way.

Therefore—and this is the third cause of our success—ever since 1841, when we acknowledged the right of the Canadians to govern themselves, we have accorded self-government to our colonies as soon as they were willing and ready to look after themselves. The effect has been to make them not only grateful and content, but more eager and more competent to ensure their own progress.

Fourthly, the British multiply exceedingly, and being by nature and by education self-reliant and enterprising, thousands of them have always been ready to quit their homes in order to go and hew for themselves elbow-room in other lands. To-day there are ten and a half million Britons in the colonies. There are also more than forty million descendants of Britons in the United States.

Fifthly, the mother-country of the Britons has the good fortune to be separated from the continent of Europe by the English Channel. It is, and always has been, less open to attack from powerful neighbours than are France and Spain. European wars exhausted the



strength of both these powers, at a time when its insular position enabled Great Britain to reserve its strength for colonial conquests. It is the fact that the borders of our country are washed on all sides by the sea, that made it possible for Lord Chatham to spare men and money for the purpose of helping Frederick the Great and his generals to worry France on the Continent, while he sent his admirals to sweep the seas and Wolfe to storm Quebec. But it must be remembered that Wolfe would never have reached Quebec if Chatham had not first secured the control of the Atlantic.

Lastly, therefore, our success is in a great measure due to the skill of our sailors, and to the genius and daring of admirals like Drake, Hawke, Rodney, and Nelson, who gave us the sea-power, without which an empire can neither be won nor kept. When the sceptre of the oceans is torn from our grasp, we shall be forced to surrender the Imperial Crown.

We have won a great empire, and it is to our interest not to lose it. A quarter of the population of the civilized world dwell under our flag. Nearly half the imports that enter the countries occupied by these millions of fellow-subjects come from Great Britain. This means that thousands in the mother-land make their living by supplying the colonists with the necessaries and luxuries of life. Further, our colonies offer to the 250,000 emigrants who quit our shores each year a new home among men of the same race, who speak a familiar tongue, and who are governed by familiar laws. More than all this, however, is the promise of the future. The day must surely come when Australia, New Zealand, Canada, and South Africa will have risen to a position equal to that now held by Great Britain. United under one flag, the

world-empire will then be irresistible, and its power to do good will be great and far-reaching.

In order that the empire may be held together under one flag it is necessary that its various parts should be drawn closer to one another by ever-tightening cords of interest and affection. The report of the colonial conference held in London, at the time of the Queen's Diamond Jubilee, in the memorable year 1897, clearly shows that the colonists themselves are ready to join in the work of Imperial Federation. Great Britain has already the affection of her colonies, and provided that she continues to consult their interests, and that she make great sacrifices now to maintain an army and a fleet strong enough to protect them and herself, there is every probability that in the time to come she will find herself the centre of a Greater Britain, so powerful that it need fear no rival.

GENERAL SUMMARY.

Definitions.—A colony has been best defined “as a community politically dependent in some shape or form, the majority, or the dominant portion of whose members belong by birth or origin to the mother country, such persons having no intention to return to the mother country or to seek a permanent home elsewhere than in the colony” (*H. Egerton*). Therefore, (1) a British colony must be dependent on Great Britain; (2) the majority of its population must be of British origin, or (3) it must contain a dominant minority of British origin; and (4) it must be regarded as a permanent home by its inhabitants of British origin. India does not satisfy the fourth condition; it is not a colony, but a dependency. Natal does not satisfy the second condition, but it satisfies the third, and is therefore a colony. So also are Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Cape Colony, the West Indies, and Ceylon. The term **dependency** is generally applied to possessions that are not colonies in the sense above defined. India, Gibraltar, and Malta are examples of dependencies.

Colonies and dependencies are also classified according to their form of government, as follows:—(1) **Self-governing colonies** (responsible), which, like Canada, the Cape, Australia, and New Zealand, have practically the complete management of their home affairs. Their relations with foreign powers or with other parts of the empire are controlled by the British government. (2) **Colonies with partial self-government** (semi-responsible or representative), which make their own laws, but which leave the administration of these laws in the hands of imperial officials. Such is Barbadoes, where the judges and other executive officials are appointed by the crown. (3) **Crown colonies**, which are directly governed by officials appointed by the British government (by the Crown). Such are Gibraltar, Ceylon, Sierra Leone, Fiji, and many others. (4) **Protectorates**, which are governed by British officials in conjunction with native rulers. Such are British East Africa, British Central Africa. The term **protectorate** is a wide one, and may include what are known as **spheres of influence**, *i.e.* territory claimed by us, but not actually occupied. (5) **Territories administered by char-**

tered companies under the control of the crown; such as Mashonaland. (6) **Subordinate colonies**, which are administered by officials nominated by the government of another colony. Tasmania, New Zealand, and other Australian colonies used to be subordinate to New South Wales. To-day Aden is governed by officials appointed by the Governor of Bombay.

GROWTH OF THE BRITISH COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES.

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- I. Period of Preparation (16th century).—**When the Spaniards in America and the Portuguese in the East were establishing colonial empires, England was content to send explorers like Cabot to the northern coasts of America, and bold adventurers like Drake to plunder the Spaniards and explore the Southern oceans. But at the end of the century she had
- 4, 5. (1) trained herself to become a great sea-power, (2) destroyed the
 2. maritime supremacy of Spain, (3) conceived the idea, first sug-
 3. gested by Raleigh, of planting colonies in the lands visited by
 - 6-8. her explorers.

- II. Period of Settlements and Trading Stations (17th century).—**During this period the attention of the English as a nation was distracted from colonization by the wars and discussions arising from the Stuart misrule. It was the period of settlements and trading stations, established not by state action, but by private enterprise. Jamaica, conquered by Cromwell, was the one notable exception. The settlements in N. America, the West Indies, on the west coast of Africa, the trading stations established in India and elsewhere, were founded either by trading companies like the Virginia, Royal African, or East Indian, or by men like the Pilgrim Fathers, who fled from England to escape religious persecution. At this time commences
30. the struggle between English and French in America, and between Portuguese, Dutch, and English traders in India and the East. The Dutch drive the Portuguese from the field.

- III. Period of Conquest (1700-1763).—**Holland, almost ruined by her wars with France, ceases to be a dangerous rival. England has to battle with France for colonial and maritime supremacy. At first the latter seems about to secure the victory,
16. but the genius of Chatham, Wolfe, and Clive give it eventually

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17. to England. The Treaty of Paris (1763), which ended the wars of this period, left us supreme in N. America and India. We also conquered Gibraltar and several West Indian isles.

IV. Period of the Final Struggle for Maritime and Colonial Supremacy (1763-1815).—The American colonies revolted, declared themselves independent, and invaded Canada. France aided them, and with Spain and Holland sought to shatter our sea power. In India our supremacy was threatened by native rulers, aided by the French. We lost the American colonies, but we saved Canada, and Warren Hastings made us stronger than ever in India. Rodney in the West Indies (1782) and Nelson at Trafalgar (1805) reasserted our right to the sceptre of the seas. We took possession of Cape Colony, Ceylon, British Guiana, Mauritius, and other islands. Cook planted the British flag in New Zealand and Australia, and in 1788 the first ship-load of convicts was landed at Botany Bay. In 1812-15 Canada was again invaded by the Americans of the United States, but they were beaten back.

V. Period of Expansion (1815-Present Day).—During this period, England, having control of the seas, has been able, without any serious opposition, to expand either by peaceful settlement, by actual conquest, or by treaty with native rulers, the empire already won. The Province of Canada has grown into the Dominion of Canada. The settlement at Sydney Cove has led to the peaceful occupation of the whole Australian continent. The native chiefs ceded us New Zealand in 1840, and Fiji in 1874. A succession of wars with its native rulers has placed all India and Burma in our hands. We have occupied vast regions in Africa; and many possessions scattered over the world, Aden, Hong-Kong, Wei-hai-wei, North Borneo, Singapore, New Guinea, and others, have been obtained either by treaty, exchange, or simple occupation.

OTHER COLONIAL POWERS OF TO-DAY.

During the above period, **France** has created a new colonial empire. She has about three and a half million square miles in Africa (including Madagascar), that is, one million at least more than England. She has built up a great dependency on the south-eastern border of our Indian Empire. But, so far, French efforts

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at colonization, apart from acquisition of territory, have not been very successful, chiefly because the population of France does not increase. She has no surplus population to dispose of. Out of a colonial population of over 30,000,000 only a few hundred thousands are French.

Germany has also commenced her colonial career by acquisitions in Africa and the Pacific. Her overflowing population and her commercial activity make her prospects as a colonizing power undoubtedly promising. She has not, however, a naval force of sufficient strength to protect her possessions in case of war, and is therefore liable to be robbed of what she has got at any moment. Apart from Russia, and perhaps Japan, no other power has made much progress. Spain, on the contrary, seems about to lose all that is left of her once vast empire.

BRITISH NORTH AMERICA.

- I. 1497-1606. North America.**—Cabot in 1497 discovered N. America and was followed by other explorers, Spanish, French, and English. In the south the Spaniards conquered Mexico. The Frenchman Cartier discovered the St. Lawrence, and in 1604 Champlain planted the first French settlement in Acadia (Nova Scotia). Meanwhile Gilbert (1583) annexed Newfoundland, and Raleigh made vain attempts to plant colonies in Virginia (1584-1587). From 1602-5 Gosnold, Pring, and Wrymouth explored the coast and traded with the Indians.

- II. A. 1607-1759. The founding and making of the Thirteen Colonies.**—In 1606 the London Company founded the first permanent settlement in Virginia, a name then given to a vast and undefined territory stretching west between the 34th and 41st parallels of latitude. In 1620 the Pilgrim Fathers landed near Cape Cod and founded the first settlement in New England.

- Out of a portion of the original Virginia were carved the following colonies:—(1) **Maryland**, granted by charter (1632) to Lord Baltimore, a Roman Catholic. It was founded to afford a home for Roman Catholics, but all religions were tolerated. (2) **The Carolinas**. North Carolina attracted settlers from other colonies as early as 1653, and in 1670 a settlement was planted by emigrants round the Ashley river in S. Carolina. In

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13. 1663 Charles II. granted the colonies to eight proprietors, among whom were Lords Clarendon and Shaftesbury. The colonists did not get on with the proprietors, and in 1729 the charter was surrendered to the Crown. (3) **Georgia**, carved out of Carolina by charter in 1732, was granted to Oglethorpe as a home for released debtors. Other settlers of all kinds joined them, and in 1752 Georgia became a crown colony.

10. New Plymouth was the first of New England or Puritan group of colonies. It was united to Massachusetts in 1691. About 1622 settlers arrived in New Hampshire. It was granted to John Mason in 1629, then united to Massachusetts, and again made a separate colony in 1692. **Massachusetts** was settled mainly by Puritans harried out of England by James I. The tyranny of Land drove others to follow their example. The colonists themselves were far from tolerant. In 1636 they drove out Roger Williams, whose religious opinions they disliked, and he went to found the colony of **Rhode Island**. About the same time settlers began to push their way into Connecticut, which was erected into a separate colony by charter uniting it to New Haven in 1665. **Maine** was granted by charter to Gorges in 1639. The New England colonies were the only ones to make a serious effort at union. They were probably prompted to do so by fears of Dutch and French neighbours. They suppressed two Indian risings, the Piquots in 1637 and the remaining tribes (King Philip's war, 1675-1678). **Louisburg** was taken by them from the French in 1745 but subsequently restored.

- In 1609 Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the service of the Dutch, discovered Delaware Bay and the Hudson River. This led to the planting of a Dutch colony, the New Netherlands, and in 1638 Swedes settled in Delaware Bay. Their settlements were appropriated by the Dutch, and the territories of both passed without much resistance into the hands of the English (1664-1674). Out of them were created the provinces of **New York** and **New Jersey**. In 1682 Penn obtained a portion of the latter colony for his Quaker settlement of **Pennsylvania**, from which **Delaware**, the portion of Swedish origin, was subsequently separated.

All these colonies continued to develop for the most part independently of each other. In general, the northern, or New England group, was mainly Puritan in religion, given to religious squabbling, cultivating their own lands, and republican in spirit.

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In the southern group lived a ruling class of planters, professing for the most part the religion of the Church of England, and possessing estates worked by negro slaves. The middle group contained mixed elements, Dutch, Germans, Swedes, Quakers, and others, without any special characteristics common to all. The great external difficulties these colonies had to face were (1) the hostility of the Indians; (2) the hostility of Spaniards in the south and French in the north; (3) the selfish commercial policy of the mother country; (4) the attempts of the crown, and of English colonial companies, of governors and chartered proprietors, to interfere with their free development. When the first two difficulties were overcome, the question of the relationship of the colonies to the mother country came to the fore and with disastrous results.

- II. B. 1607-1759.**—After settling in Acadia, the French, under the leadership of Champlain, pushed up the St. Lawrence and founded Quebec (1608). It was not long before they came into collision with the English settlers to the south. As early as 1613 Governor Dale of Virginia sent a fleet to destroy the settlements in Acadia, for he held that the French were trespassing on territory discovered by Cabot for England. This was the beginning of an intermittent warfare which continued without any decisive result until Pitt, Lord Chatham, took matters in hand and sent Wolfe to win Canada at Quebec (1759).

- III. 1759-1783. British North America till the separation of the Thirteen Colonies.**—After their defeat at Quebec the French made some ineffectual attempts to recover their position, but in 1763, by the Treaty of Paris, they finally ceded all their possessions, with the exception of St. Pierre and Miquelon, to Great Britain. Till 1783 British N. America includes both Canada and the Thirteen Colonies. For some years the newly-won possession of Canada continued to be under military rule. The French settlers were well treated, and few left the country. Efforts were also made to gain the allegiance of the Indians, but too late. Several tribes south of the Great Lakes rose under Pontiac (1763), attacked the frontier settlements, and were only put down after several months had elapsed. In 1774 the Quebec Act was passed, which gave to Canada, under the title of the province of Quebec, a governor and an assembly nominated by the crown. By this act the interests and religion

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- of the French were further safeguarded. The wisdom of this policy became apparent when the Thirteen Colonies revolted in 22. 1775, for throughout the war the French Canadians remained loyal to England. The independence of the States was secured 23. in 1783, and from this time their history no longer concerns us here.

- IV. Growth of the Dominion of Canada (1783-1897).—**Before and at the end of the war thousands of persons, who had remained loyal to England, fled from the States to Canada. These loyalists, besides adding a large number of hard-working and intelligent members to the population of the colony, afforded a further safeguard against future invasion from the United States. In 1791 the Province of Quebec was abolished, because the French and English element did not get on well together under one government. Lower and Upper Canada were created, leaving French in a majority in the first and English in the other. Both in these provinces and in Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward's Island, popular assemblies were created, and to each was given some share in the government of its province. These assemblies continued from this time to struggle for greater power, and they quarrelled constantly with the governors appointed by the crown. But in 1812 political strife was silenced by the declaration of war between England 24. and the United States. Canada was invaded, and the colonists, French and English, forgot their grievances, and, fighting side by side with the regular troops, finally drove the enemy out of the country, thus showing that they placed their loyalty to the Crown above personal considerations. At the close of the war (1815) political strife recommenced. Risings occurred in both Upper and Lower Canada, and at last the English government sent out Lord Durham. It was due to his advice that in 1840 the **Union Act** was passed, which acknowledged the right of the colonists to manage their own affairs, and by 1848 self-government became a reality in the provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and by 1851 in Prince Edward's Island. The next object in view was to unite the various provinces under one central government, and create the Dominion of Canada. It was chiefly owing to the efforts of Sir J. Macdonald, Sir G. Cartier, and George Brown that this object was achieved. In 1867 the **British North America Act** was passed by the

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- British Parliament, uniting Canada to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. The Union was subsequently joined by Prince Edward's Island, British Columbia, Manitoba, and the North-West Territory.

- Newfoundland.**—This island alone remains outside the Union, and requires separate notice. Discovered by Cabot in 1497, and annexed by Gilbert in 1583, it is the oldest of the British colonies, and the most unfortunate. Its importance lay in the valuable cod-fisheries round its coast. The fishermen, wishing to keep it to themselves as a fishing-station, resisted the arrival of settlers, and even went so far as to obtain a decree from the government prohibiting the foundation of plantations in Newfoundland. In 1696 the settlers who still clung to the soil in spite of opposition, succeeded in having the decree modified in their favour. Besides suffering at the hands of their fellow-countrymen they were subject to incessant attacks from the French. The Treaty of Paris (1763), though it put an end to French aggression for the time, left her fishing rights to France, and these were practically confirmed by a subsequent treaty in 1783. These rights have been a source of perpetual annoyance ever since both to colonists and the English government. Newfoundland obtained responsible government in 1855, and Labrador, which is chiefly used as a summer resort for fishermen, was added to it in 1876. Newfoundland has a healthy climate, much mineral wealth, and is very fertile in many parts. Its progress is not retarded by natural disadvantages, but by the unfortunate political circumstances in which it has been placed.

THE CHIEF BRITISH WEST INDIA ISLES.

Jamaica. Chap. 26-28.

- Barbadoes** was discovered by Columbus. In 1605 the crew of a British ship landed and took possession in the name of James I. The first settlers arrived in 1625. Subsequently the island was granted to various proprietors, and their conflicting claims were only settled at the cost of much money and trouble. In 1645 negro slaves were introduced, and the settlers, in spite of the exactions of their successive proprietors, prospered exceedingly. During the great rebellion Barbadoes became a refuge for Royalists. It was taken possession of by the Commonwealth, but

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the rights of the settlers were respected. In 1663 Charles II. abolished proprietary rule and assumed sovereign rights. Until the abolition of slavery, Barbadoes was one of the richest regions in the world.

Trinidad was discovered by Columbus in 1498. It was settled by the Spaniards, who in 1584 were attacked and defeated by

7. Raleigh on his way to El Dorado. Sir R. Abercrombie captured the island in 1797, and it was finally ceded to England by the Treaty of Amiens (1802).

Dominica. Occupied by the French. They were attacked and defeated by the English, to whom the island was given by the Treaty of Versailles (1763). The French recaptured it, but it finally passed into British hands in 1783. Of the **Virgin Isles** thirty-two out of fifty belong to Great Britain. These and **Tobago** (1814), **St. Lucia** (1803), **Grenada** and **St. Vincent** (1783), **St. Kitts** (1667), **Antigua** (1667), were fought for by French and English, and finally passed into the hands of the latter at the dates above mentioned.

1. **The Bahamas.**—Of this group Watling Island is supposed to have been the island first sighted by Columbus in 1482. In 1678 the group was given to Sir H. Gilbert by Queen Elizabeth. Settlers arrived in 1632, and the islands became a convenient centre for operations against the Spaniards. They were finally given to Great Britain in 1783. **The Bermudas**; named after
9. their discoverer, a Spaniard, Bermudes. Somers took possession of the group for James I. in 1609. The islands were granted to trading companies, and finally taken over by Charles II. in 1684.

In size and population our West Indian possessions are comparatively unimportant. Their united population does not exceed a million and a half. None of our colonies, however, have had a more interesting and a more varied history, and none have passed through a period of greater prosperity. In times gone by the West Indian planters had the monopoly of the sugar trade, and their estates, worked by slave labour, yielded enormous profits. The abolition of the slave-trade dealt the first blow at their prosperity; for they had to substitute paid labour for slave labour. This was followed by the discovery that beet-root contained sugar. European countries sought to close their markets to the West Indian sugar, and by heavy bounties encouraged the production of beet sugar. Other countries, such as Egypt and Argentina, have also entered the field. There has been an immense

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increase in the production of sugar, and a consequent fall in price. Moreover, the encouragement given by foreign governments to their beet-root sugar producers has enabled the latter to compete on more than equal terms with the West Indian planters. What, therefore, was, and still is, the chief industry of the islands has ceased to be a source of profit.

British commissioners were recently sent to investigate matters, and they have recommended the adoption of certain measures of relief, such as the improvement of the means of communication between the islands, the encouragement of a trade in fruit, and the grant of loans varying from £6000 to £120,000. Whether all these measures will be adopted, or whether it will be wise to adopt them, are questions which have not yet been settled. Meanwhile our West Indian planters are faced by the prospect of ruin. Estates are being abandoned and numbers of the labouring population are being thrown out of work. Widespread distress will follow, and many of our once flourishing West Indian possessions, in spite of their fair climate and fertile soil, will have to pass through a period of hardships and misery, unless the mother country comes speedily to their rescue.

OTHER AMERICAN POSSESSIONS.

British Honduras was discovered by Columbus in 1502. The earliest English settlers, who were probably buccaneers, arrived in 1638. Others followed, and many, like Dampier, spent their time either in logwood cutting, or, when they desired a change of air and employment, in piracy. The arrival of the English in Jamaica led to further settlements in Honduras. They were subjected to repeated attacks from the Spaniards, but in 1798 the latter made their last attempt to regain the country, and were utterly defeated. British Honduras was for some time governed from Jamaica. It became an independent colony in 1884.

- British Guiana**, discovered by Columbus, 1498. Raleigh
7. went on a voyage up the Orinoco in 1595, but no actual settlement resulted. Later, Dutch, French, and English settlers arrived, and collisions between them were frequent. In 1814 Great Britain finally secured the portion now known as British
 47. Guiana. In recent times gold has been discovered west of the

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river Suruaru. This led to a boundary dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela, which is to be settled by arbitration in 1898.

Falkland Islands, discovered by Davis in 1592, and are now used by the English chiefly as a whaling station. **South Georgia**, a bare and uninhabited island, was taken possession of by Cook in 1775.

EUROPEAN POSSESSIONS.

Gibraltar and Malta. See Chap. 29.

Isle of Man.—The Manx people put themselves under the protection of Edward I. and for more than a century the island was held by court favourites. In 1466 Henry IV. made a grant of it to the Stanley family, and in 1735 the Duke of Athol succeeded to the property. In 1827 he ceded all his rights to the crown in return for a large sum of money. The island is now ruled by a parliament of its own, under a lieutenant-governor appointed by the Queen.

Channel Islands.—They are all that is left to us of the dukedom of Normandy. They were occupied by the French from time to time during the long wars of the fourteenth century. In 1781 Jersey was attacked by a French force, but it was beaten off by Major Pearson, whose gallantry cost him his life at the age of twenty-four. French is still the official language, though English is taught to all the children in the schools. These islands, like the Isle of Man, are governed by parliaments of their own, under the control of lieutenant-governors.

BRITISH INDIA.

Period I. 16th and 17th centuries. Trading Settlements.

30. During this period, Portuguese, Dutch, English, and French struggle for commercial supremacy in the East. The Portuguese succumb first, and the subsequent overthrow of the Dutch leaves the English and French face to face. The English establish trading settlements at Surat (1611), Madras (1639), and Bombay (1696). From these three centres the possessions of the English East India Company gradually extend inland.

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Period II. 1700-1773. The decay of native power, and conflict between England and France.

- The decline and fall of the empire of the Moguls, or Mahomedan rulers of India, led to a state of anarchy. Having no strong hand to control them, the various native rulers who had formerly submitted to the government of the Mogul, now began to quarrel with one another. Dupleix, the French Governor of Pondicherry, took advantage of the disputes between rival chieftains to gain influence and territory for France. He not only sold his aid to the highest bidder, but he trained native soldiers to fight for him against English and Indians. The result was that Madras, the headquarters of the English, fell into his hands
31. (1746), but it was restored to them by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748. The English adopted the tactics of the French,
 32. and their success was ensured by the recall of Dupleix and the
 33. rise of Robert Clive, who, at the battle of Plassey (1757), won Bengal, and laid the foundations of our Indian Empire. This was followed by the victory of Wandewash (1760), by which Eyre Coote broke the power of the French. Clive then proceeded to consolidate English power in the territory acquired, by getting the government into his own hands and leaving the native prince or nabob a merely nominal sovereignty. After his final departure, in 1767, the officials of the Company became utterly corrupt; their one object being to make money as fast as possible.

- Period III. 1774-1838. The Conquest of the whole of Southern India.**—Warren Hastings adopts the policy of Dupleix, makes use of native mercenaries, and extends the dominion of the Company either by war or by intrigue. He defeats the Marathas (1779-81) and his great general
34. Coote saves Madras by his victories over Hyder Ali, ruler of Mysore. Peace was made with his son and successor, Tipu, in
 35. 1784. In 1785 Hastings returned to England and was put on his trial, charged with cruelty and extortion in his dealing with the Indian native rulers. Lord Cornwallis succeeded Hastings
 36. as governor (1786-93). The hostility of Tipu leads to a war which ends in the victory of the English. From 1798 to 1805 Lord Wellesley was governor-general. During his term of office

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- Tipu, Sultan of Mysore, again gives trouble, is finally defeated and slain by Colonel Wellesley (afterwards Duke of Wellington),
38. the brother of the governor, and part of Mysore becomes British territory. Then followed the second Maratha war. In 1805 Lord Wellesley was recalled and his policy of conquest was discarded for a policy of non-intervention in native affairs. It was felt that the burden of the Empire he had won was too great. Lord Hastings became governor in 1814, and another period of expansion started with the conquest and annexation of Nepal, which henceforth supplied us with excellent soldiers in the persons of the Ghurkas. Further additions were made after the
38. third war (1818). By this time the English were practically supreme over the whole Indian peninsula south of a line drawn from the mouth of the Ganges to the mouth of the Indus as well as over Bengal up to the Sutlej.

Period IV. 1838-56. Conquest of Northern India.

- This period opens with an Afghan war (1839-42) caused by Dost Muhammad's friendly advances to Russia. He was deposed, but soon found himself strong enough to exterminate the English
40. army of occupation—4500 soldiers and 10,000 camp-followers—under Sale. Only one escaped to tell the tale. Dost Muhammad was then attacked and defeated by Generals Pollock and Nott, but was nevertheless allowed to remain upon the throne. The defeat of Sale encouraged the Amirs of Sind to give trouble
39. (1843). Their country was annexed by Sir Charles Napier. Then
40. came the Sikh war (1845-46) which resulted in the addition of further territory to British India. In 1848 the Earl of Dalhousie became governor-general. On his arrival occurred the second
40. Sikh war (1848). The Sikhs were defeated, and (1849) the whole of the Punjab was annexed. Dalhousie then occupied himself with the consolidation and development of the dominion that had been won. His last achievement was the annexation of Oudh, and in 1856 he resigned. He left nearly the whole of India in the hands of the British, and in addition Tenasserim, Arakan (1826), and Pegu (1856), provinces in Burmah.

Period V. 1856-Present Time. Consolidation of the Indian Empire.

Viscount Canning succeeded Dalhousie, and shortly afterwards the Mutiny broke out. Its causes were as follows: (1) A long-

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41. standing discontent with the British policy of interfering with native habits, customs, and religious beliefs. The supposed issue of cartridges greased with the fat of cows and pigs was the immediate cause of the outbreak of hostilities. The Hindoos venerate the cow, and the followers of Mahommed abominate the flesh of the pig. (2) The Sepoy soldiers had been irritated by the attempts of the government to make them serve out of India, and by occasional refusals to grant extra pay. (3) It was thought by many that the British power was declining. Stories came of reverses in the Crimea. It was rumoured that the Shah of Persia was about to conquer India, and an old prophecy was called to mind which limited the period of British rule to 100 years from the date of Plassey. (4) The general feeling of discontent and restlessness was turned into a fierce spirit of revolt by the cartridge incident above mentioned. The results of the mutiny were that (i) the whole Indian administration was placed under the control of the crown; (ii) the native army was considerably reduced. In 1874 the East India Company was finally dissolved, all its property and its functions having been passed into the hands of the Imperial Government.

- In 1877 the Queen was declared Empress of India by Lord Lytton at Delhi. This declaration was intended to be the means "of drawing still closer the bonds of union between the government of Her Majesty and the great allies and feudatories of the Empire". It was an event of the highest political importance.
43. In 1880 occurred the second Afghan war, which was brought to an end by the brilliant achievements of Lord Roberts. In 1884 Lord Dufferin became viceroy. During his term of office the movement of Russia on the Afghan boundary nearly led to a war. A compromise was effected, and the limits of the Russian territory defined (1887). The subsequent period was marked by the strengthening of the N.W. frontier, the development of local native government and the education of the natives generally. These two questions—(1) defence of the frontier and army organization; (2) education of the subject population—still
44. continue to occupy the chief place in the thoughts of those who are concerned with the government of our Indian Empire.

OTHER ASIATIC POSSESSIONS

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42.

Burmah. (See Chap. 42.)

Ceylon.—First colonized by the Portuguese in 1517. About 1644 they were driven out by the Dutch, who in turn had to yield to the English. The country has been developed by Maitland, Barnes, Sir Arthur Gordon, and others. Chiefly owing to its tea-plantations the island is now in a very flourishing condition.

- The Straits Settlements,** *i.e.* Singapore, Penang, Wellesley, Dindings, Malacca, and the Protected States passed under the control of the Indian Government in 1867. Singapore, commanding the entrance to the Straits, and a position of great military and commercial importance, we owe to Stamford Raffles, 45. who took possession of it in 1819. **Hong-Kong** is also an important military and commercial station on the coast of China. It was ceded to us in 1841, and its boundaries have been extended, by an agreement with China, by about 200 sq. miles. **Aden**, secured in 1838, and **Perim** in 1855, are important as forming part of the chain of military stations which connect England with India. Aden is also a great trading centre. The port of **Wei-hai-wei** was obtained in 1898 as a set-off against the acquisition of Port Arthur by Russia.

British Borneo—a Protectorate including Labuan Island, Brunei, and Sarawak, and the territory of the British North Borneo Company. **Labuan** was ceded to England in 1846 by the Sultan of Brunei, in return for British aid against the Malay pirates. The first Governor of the island was Sir James Brooke. In 1890 the colony was handed over to the management of the British North Borneo Company.

- Brunei** and **Sarawak** became British protectorates in 1888, by the terms of a treaty made with the Sultan of this district. 45. The name of Rajah Brooke is closely connected with the history of Sarawak. He, in return for help against the Malay pirates, in 1841 received the title of "Rajah and Governor of Sarawak". He introduced thorough reforms, and great prosperity followed. The present Rajah is Sir Charles Brooke, a nephew of Sir James. **British North Borneo** includes the northern portion of the island. In 1881 a royal charter was

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granted to a Company, formed in order to develop the resources of North Borneo. In 1888 a British 'Protectorate' was declared, but the Company was still allowed to administer the district.

BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA.

- In 1486 a Portuguese named Diaz discovered the Cape. Twelve years later it was rounded by Vasco da Gama on his way to the Indies. Till 1652 the Cape was used as a place of call, first by
46. Portuguese, and then by Dutch ships sailing to and from India. In that year the Dutch East India Company planted a settlement, which in 1657 was considerably enlarged by grants of lands made to discharged servants of the Company, and in 1685 by the arrival of three hundred French Protestants. Little was done during the century and a half of Dutch rule to ensure the success of the colony. Restrictions were imposed by the company on private trading, and cultivators were allowed to deal only with the Cape government, which was exceedingly corrupt. No attempts were made to develop the country, and the settlers were subjected to frequent attacks by the natives.
 47. In 1795 England took temporary possession of the Cape, restoring it to the Dutch in 1802. Four years later it was again occupied by the English, and passed definitely into their hands in 1814. Five years after this a large immigration of British settlers took place, and about the same time occurred a Kaffir war, the result of an attempt to extend the territory of the
 48. colony towards the east. Another Kaffir war followed in 1834-5, and Sir Benjamin D'Urban set about extending the boundary of the colony to the Kei river, but he was overruled by Lord Glenelg, the Secretary of State, who restored the territory won, and negotiated treaties with the Kosa chiefs, hoping thus to secure their friendship. The chiefs, however, regarded this policy as a display of weakness on the part of the English, and continued
 49. to give trouble for many years (for map, v. p. 177). In 1835 took place the famous emigration or "trek" of the Boers, which finally resulted in the foundation of the South African Republic and
 51. Orange Free State, the former being declared an independent
 54. state in 1852; the latter in 1854.
 49. Meanwhile English settlers had been arriving in Natal. They were joined by a number of the Boer emigrants above mentioned, who succeeded in establishing themselves in the country after

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50. crushing the power of the Zulu king Dingaan. Disputes then arose between the English and Boers (1840-2), ending in the submission of the latter and the annexation of Natal (1843). Next year the colony was incorporated with Cape Colony, but was in 1856 formed into a separate colony, with partial self-government. In 1893 it obtained complete self-government.

- In consequence of Lord Glenelg's policy, above mentioned, the
51. Kaffir tribe of Kosas, dwelling beyond the Fish River, rose again in 1846, and were not finally subdued till 1852. Their country, under the name of British Kaffraria, was placed under military control. From 1847-52 Sir Harry Smith was Governor of Cape Colony.

- In 1853 semi-responsible or representative government was granted to Cape Colony. Two chambers were created, the members of both to be elected by every male British subject in receipt of a certain annual income. The high executive officials were appointed by the crown. In 1872 complete self-government
52. was granted. The year in which the first parliament met (1854) Sir George Grey came out as governor, and inaugurated a number of highly-important reforms. In 1857 several thousand of the Kosas in Kaffraria sacrificed themselves, their herds and crops,
52. to one of the strangest delusions that have possessed the human race. The territory from the Keis Kamma to the Bashee River vacated by them was settled by English and Germans, and was incorporated with Cape Colony in 1865. Thus British Kaffraria as a separate colony ceased to exist (see map, p. 177).

53. Two years later diamonds were discovered in Griqualand West, and further discoveries led to the annexation of this district in
51. 1871. In the same year Basutoland was annexed, and in 1877 the
54. Transvaal was annexed against the wishes of the Boers. Next
54. year war broke out with the Zulus, and it was followed by the Boer war in 1880, which ended in the independence of the Transvaal being finally recognized, subject to British suzerainty. According to Art. IV. of the Convention of 1884, "The South African Republic will conclude no treaty or engagement with any state or nation other than the Orange Free State, nor with any tribes to the eastward or westward of the republic, until the same has been approved of by Her Majesty the Queen". Boundary disputes with the Boer Republic (or Transvaal) led to the arrival of Sir Charles Warren with an armed force in Bechuanaland, and the boundary between this territory and the Transvaal was defi-

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nately laid down. Bechuanaland, south of the Molopo river, was erected into a crown colony, and in 1890 a large tract north of this river was also placed as a protectorate under the control of the governor of the crown colony.

In 1887, Lobengula, King of the Matabeles and Mashonas, placed himself under the protection of Great Britain, and a treaty to this effect was signed in spite of the opposition of the Portuguese and Boers, who both wished to gain possession of the territory. It was in 1889 granted by charter to the South Africa Company, which owes its origin to the energy of Mr. Cecil Rhodes. Owing to their attacks upon the Mashonas, the Matabele were in 1893 crushed by Dr. Jameson. Lobengula, their king, died in 1894, and in the same year, by an agreement with Her Majesty's government, "those parts of South Africa bounded by British Bechuanaland, the German Protectorate, the rivers Chobe and Zambesi, the Portuguese possessions, and the South African Republic", were placed under the control of the company. This territory is now known as Rhodesia. In the following year (1895) Zululand was finally annexed, and in Nov. 1897, it and Amatongaland were united to the colony of Natal. Walfisch Bay (1894) and the northern portion of Kaffraria, known as Pondoland, complete the sum of British possessions. In Dec. 1895, Dr. Jameson made an attack on the Transvaal Republic, and was defeated. His defeat was followed by a Matabele rising, which was not put down without difficulty (1896-97). As a result of Dr. Jameson's raid, the military forces in Rhodesia were taken out of the hands of the company, and are now controlled by the imperial government.

OTHER AFRICAN POSSESSIONS.

Gambia, discovered by the Portuguese in 1447. The English occupied it in the seventeenth century for trading purposes, and in 1888 the territory on the river banks and some small islands were erected into a crown colony.

St. Helena passed through the hands of Portuguese and Dutch into those of the English (1673). It is famous as having been the prison-home of the great Napoleon from 1815 to 1821. **Sierra Leone** was ceded to us in 1787 as a settlement for negroes, who had been freed from slavery either in Africa or elsewhere. It was made a crown colony in 1888. **Ascension**

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was occupied in 1815, and is under the control of the Admiralty. **Lagos** was one of the centres of the African slave-trade, and was on this account occupied by the British in 1861. It is now a crown colony, with a protectorate over adjacent native tribes. Lagos is the chief port of commerce on the West African sea-board. **Gold Coast Colony**—English companies traded with it from 1662 onward. For some time it was governed from Sierra Leone, but was erected into a separate colony in 1874. Additions have been made to it by purchase from Danes and Dutch, and by the annexation of Ashanti in 1895, which followed upon the downfall of King Prempeh. **Walfisch Bay** was annexed to the Cape in 1884. **Niger Coast Protectorate**, formerly the "Oil Rivers Protectorate", after having been the resort of traders for many years, was declared a British protectorate in 1884. **Royal Niger Company's territory**, declared a British protectorate in 1885, and was granted by charter to the Royal Niger Company in 1886. In 1896 Sir G. Goldie, the governor, attacked a powerful tribe of slave-raiders, the Fulahs, and completely crushed them. In 1897 a boundary dispute with the French began, which has now (June, 1898) been settled by mutual concessions. **Somali Coast Protectorate**, on the coast of the Gulf of Aden, dates from 1884, and is administered by an agent of the Bombay Presidency. **British East Africa**, ceded by treaty, and granted by charter to a company in 1888, but they were bought out by the Government in 1895. **Zanzibar and Pemba** have been British Protectorates since 1890. **British Central Africa Protectorate**, established in 1889, and is administered partly by the imperial government and partly by the British South Africa Company. **Mauritius** was discovered by the Portuguese, settled by the Dutch, then occupied by the French, and lastly seized by the English in 1810, and held by them ever since.

AUSTRALASIA.

Period of Discovery, 1606–1788.—In 1606 a Spaniard, Torres, passed through the strait named after him and saw the north coast of the continent, but nothing was known of this voyage till after Cook's time. In the same year a Dutchman sailed
 57. into the Gulf of Carpentaria. Other Dutchmen explored the west
 59. coast. In 1642 Tasman, in 1699 Dampier, and 1769 Cook, con-
 60. tinued the work of exploring the coast, which was completed by

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58. Flinders and others. New Zealand was sighted by Tasman in 1642, and its coasts were explored by Cook, 1769-1770.

New South Wales.—The early history of Australia is the history of New South Wales. In 1788 the English government decided to found a convict settlement at Botany Bay, because (1) convicts could no longer be sent to the revolted American colonies; (2) prisons in England were filled to overflowing; (3) it was feared that the French might take possession of Australia. After the departure of Phillip, the first governor, corruption and vice flourished in the colony. Rum was imported by the officers and soldiers and sold to the settlers and convicts at ridiculous prices. Governors King (1800-6) and Macquarie (1810-21) did much to mend matters. It was during the administration of the latter that the settlement spread beyond the Blue Mountains.

This extension was accompanied by the extermination, often with great cruelty, of the neighbouring native tribes. In 1822 Brisbane was sent out as governor, and during his term of office the corrupt band of officers and soldiers known as the N. S. Wales Corps was recalled. Free settlers were encouraged to immigrate, and their presence raised the moral tone of the colony, which continued to extend its borders and to prosper. The extension of territory, however, made it easier for convicts to escape and maintain themselves by plundering the farmers. A body of mounted police was formed to keep these bushrangers in check, but it was not till 1830, when the Bushrangers Act was passed, that strong measures were taken to suppress the evil. As its population increased the colony began to clamour for self-government. So far the authority of the governors had been almost absolute, and their position now became difficult and unpleasant. In 1842 semi-responsible government was accorded, but it was only a stepping-stone. In 1851 transportation of convicts to the colony was finally abolished. In 1856 the British Parliament passed the Constitution Act, which provided for a governor and an Upper House nominated by the Queen, and a Legislative Assembly elected by the colonists. The ministers were to be, as in England, responsible to the elected assembly. Meanwhile, ever since 1851, the year of the great gold discoveries, the colony had steadily prospered, the life of the settlers had become purer and their ideals higher. Schools had been founded and also a university. The first parliament elected after the passing of the

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act took further measures to put down the bushrangers. From this time onward the colony made rapid progress, and its affection for the mother country was shown by its equipping and sending a force to help in revenging Gordon's death in the Soudan.

- Tasmania.**—In 1803 the governor of New South Wales, in order to anticipate the French, sent a ship-load of his convicts to Van Diemen's Land, as the island was then called. In the same year a number of convicts arrived from England. They had been sent to Port Phillip, but the place was considered unsuitable and deserted. Cattle were imported into the new colony, and every effort made to render it self-supporting and ensure its progress by the immigration of free settlers. In 1825 it was separated from New South Wales, to which it had hitherto been subordinate. But the colony suffered from the nature of its origin. Numbers of convicts escaped and lived by plundering the peaceful inhabitants. As in New South Wales, strong measures had to be taken to suppress them. The hostility of the natives was another danger from which the colony was only freed by the exertions of Robinson. As in the other colonies, prosperity and increased population led to petitions for self-government and protests against the importation of convicts. In 1850 partial self-government was granted; in 1852 an end was put to the importation of convicts, and two years later the name Van Diemen's Land, with its unpleasant associations, was dropped, that of Tasmania adopted. In 1855 the colony obtained complete self-government. The progress of Tasmania has been steady, the natural wealth of the country is great, its climate delightful, and future prospects very promising.

- Victoria.**—In 1803 a ship-load of convicts was sent from England to Port Phillip, but after a short stay the settlement was transferred to Van Diemen's Land. It was not till 1834 that the first permanent settlement was made by Henty, Batman, and other free colonists from Tasmania. The colony grew rapidly, it became the home of numerous squatters, and in 1842 it was allowed to send representatives to the Legislative Assembly of New South Wales. In 1850 it was made an independent colony, and named after Queen Victoria. It then had a population of 76,200, but the discovery of gold sent the population up with a rush to about 350,000. In 1855 the colony was made self-governing, and though its term of political freedom has been

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- characterized by a good deal of internal squabbling and a profuse expenditure of public money, the fertility of its soil, its mineral wealth, and the energy of its inhabitants, assure a great future to Victoria. To the liberality of this colony was due the famous
63. expedition undertaken by Burke and Wills.

Western Australia.—In 1826 a military post was established at St. George's Sound with a view to anticipating any attempts at settlement by the French. Nothing more was done till Captain Stirling brought home a favourable report of the country. Thereupon many immigrants arrived and bought large estates in the Swan River district for nominal prices. A gentleman named Peel bought 250,000 acres and imported 300 labourers and £50,000 worth of goods. The soil was found to be almost worthless, and Peel and many others were ruined. Those who had the means emigrated, and the rest remained to endure great hardships. The arrival of a number of freed convicts made matters worse, for the new-comers speedily brought the settlement into collision with the natives. Attempts were made to discover more fertile land in the interior, but with no great success. In 1848 the settlers consented to receive convicts. They thus obtained a supply of cheap labour, and, further, the guard and nourishment of the prisoners was a welcome source of income. Unlike the other colonies, Western Australia never petitioned the government to abolish their penal establishment, and it was only a change of prison policy in England in 1868 that put an end to the importation of convicts. The timber trade, the discovery of better soil, of gold and other minerals, the construction of railways and other public works, have bettered the condition of the colony, but it still lags behind the others. Its constitutional development passed through the usual stages: (1) the almost absolute rule of a governor; (2) semi-responsible government; (3) complete self-government, limited by the provision that the members of the Upper House were to be nominated by the governor until the population reached 60,000. The population in 1897 had reached 152,840.

South Australia.—In 1829 a Mr. Wakefield proposed to found a colony for men who were better born, richer, and more highly educated than the ordinary emigrant. In 1834 an act of Parliament provided for the establishment of a colony in South Australia, in which Wakefield's theories were to a certain extent

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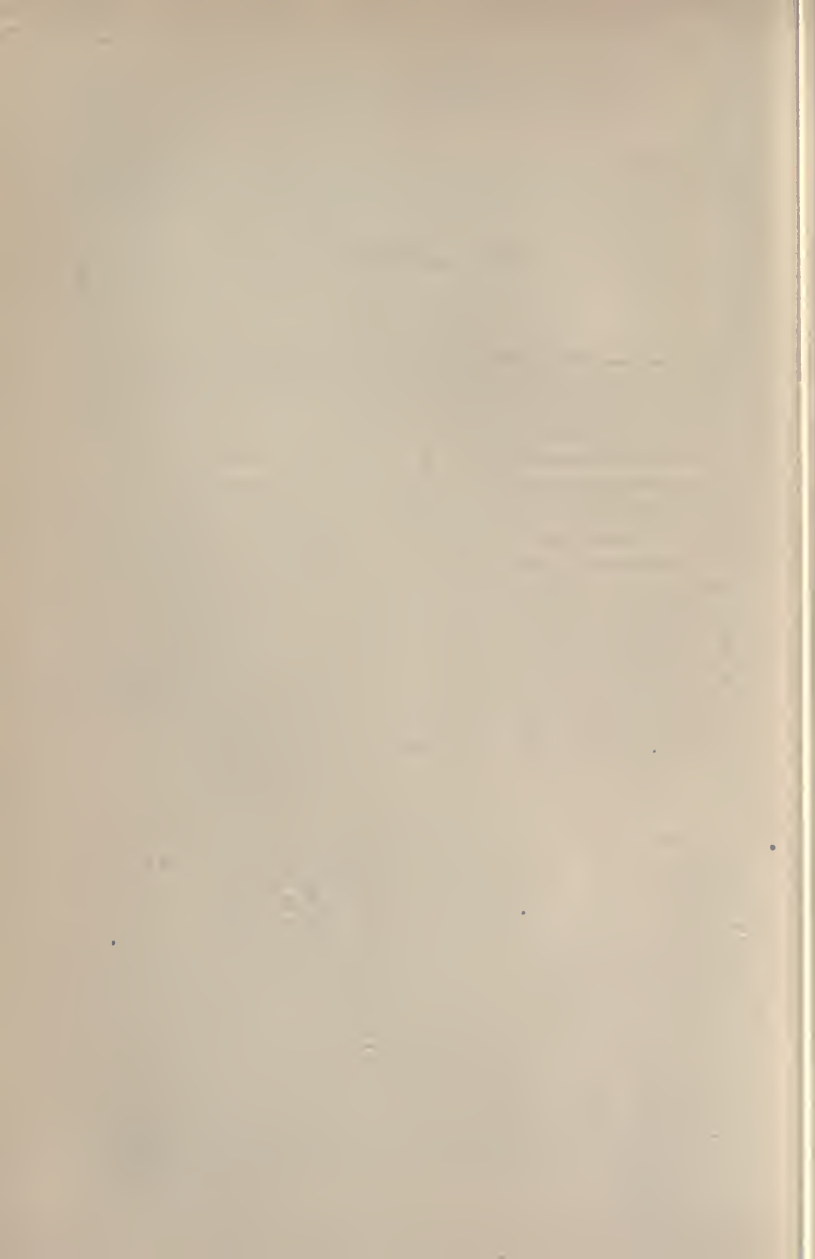
- to be put into practice. Land was to be bought by the settlers at 12s. an acre, a comparatively high price; they were to employ free labour and form themselves into a cultured landed gentry. In 1836 these gentlemen arrived, and a site for Adelaide, the capital, was chosen. But instead of buying estates the colonists remained in the skeleton city to squabble and gamble. When the free labourers arrived they found no employment, and went to swell the number of starving unemployed. To relieve their distress public works were started, but after a time the English government refused to supply any more money for this purpose. Those who had the means left the colony; others started seriously to grow wheat and herd cattle, and in 1841 the colony was started on a new basis by Governor Grey. In 1856 South Australia became a self-governing colony. Its progress has been sure, and its territory has been enlarged by its acquisition of the northern territory, where much fertile soil in a tropical climate still awaits cultivation.

- Queensland.**—In 1824 a penal settlement was established at Moreton Bay by the Governor of New South Wales, and it was removed in 1839. Meanwhile settlers, pushing north in search of new pastures, occupied the district in which Brisbane now stands. The early history of the colony records, on the one hand, acts of great cruelty to the natives, who were exterminated without mercy; and on the other hand, the deeds of brave explorers like Leichardt, Mitchell, and others. In 1859 Queensland was separated from New South Wales, and given complete self-government. It did not pass through the intermediate stage of partial self-government. The prosperity of the colony was assured by the discovery of Mount Morgan and other gold-mines, and by the growing importance of its cotton and sugar plantations. The planters introduced Kanakas, inhabitants of the South Sea Isles, who were found to be good and cheap labourers. As the demand increased traders sailed to the islands, kidnapped the natives, and sold them to the farmers. This traffic was, in many cases, slavery in disguise. The government had to take the matter in hand, and its efforts have been for the most part successful. The progress of Queensland has been rapid, and its natural wealth has saved it from the effects of extravagant public expenditure. It is not improbable that the colony will be divided into two, on account of the conflicting interests of North and South. So far nothing definite has been settled.

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- New Zealand (1642-1897).**—New Zealand became the resort of traders and whalers. The first settlers arrived in 1826, and in 1840 the country was annexed and made a province of New South Wales. Annexation was due to fear of French occupation and to the necessity of controlling the relations between traders, settlers, and Maoris, between whom frequent collisions had occurred. In 1841 the islands were separated from New South Wales, and five years later Sir G. Grey arrived as governor. Under his energetic rule the land had peace, and prospered. Partial self-government was followed by complete self-government. The progress of the colony was soon afterwards checked
65. by unfortunate wars with the Maoris. Sir G. Grey returned, but arrived too late to do much. The revolted tribes were at last put down after much hard fighting. Laws were passed to secure their rights, and four seats were given to Maori representatives in the colonial parliament. After another less important rising in 1868, which was not finally crushed till 1871, the Maoris settled down to a life of peace. Meanwhile the colony had been rapidly progressing, and, like the other colonies, spent money profusely on public works. The debts thus incurred had to be reduced by severe economy. The natural wealth and splendid climate of the colony make its prospects as bright as those of any of its neighbours.

Fiji and the Pacific. (See Chapter 66.)



NOTES AND MEANINGS.

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5. **To find a sea-route.** Both the routes by which trade with the East had been conducted, viz. that by Persia and the Black Sea and that by the Red Sea and Alexandria, had been closed by the Turks, who in the middle of the fifteenth century overthrew the Eastern Empire and captured Constantinople. The spices of the East had become almost necessary luxuries for Europeans, hence the anxiety for a sea-route.

reprisals; seizures and attacks made in revenge.

10. **standard;** the general opinion as to right and wrong.

14. **land-lubber.** Used by sailors as a term of contempt for anyone unacquainted with the handling and management of a ship.

20. **Heroulean.** Hercules, the Greek hero, reputed to be of great strength, was set twelve very difficult tasks to perform. Hence the adjective.

appreciated; thought very highly of.

22. **exacting;** demanding of her servants more than it was fair to ask.

Spanish Main; a name used vaguely for the northern coasts and seas of South America from the mouth of the Orinoco westward.

North-West Passage. From the earliest times the great aim of English navigators was to discover a passage for ships from the Atlantic Ocean into the Pacific along the northern coasts of America. This route was first suggested by Robert Thorne, an English merchant resident in Portugal, to King Henry VIII., in a famous letter, 1527. The passage was first made by Sir

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Robert M'Clure, in his expedition, 1850-54.

24. **the sack of Carthagena,** by Drake, in the autumn of 1585.

25. **inveterate;** making it a fixed habit.

Eldorado; literally, 'the golden'.

26. **labyrinth;** maze, having many windings difficult to find the way out of.

27. **complexion;** colour and appearance.

29. **scientific pursuits.** He was granted a laboratory or 'still-house' in the Tower Garden, where he might carry on his chemical and philosophical experiments.

30. **wisest fool in Christendom.** James was so called by the Duke of Sully, a great French statesman.

exaggerated idea; an idea greater than the truth.

32. **England's expansion;** the formation of an English colonial empire.

ideals; the high objects he set before him.

38. **wigwam;** the lodge or hut of a native Indian. These huts are generally of a conical shape. They are made by laying mats or skins over stakes planted in the ground, and meeting together at the top where the opening is for the escape of the smoke.

ruse; a crafty trick by which their opponents were cheated.

40. **stave off;** to keep off, to put off or delay.

Harvard College, the oldest and largest university in America, is situated partly in Boston and partly in Cambridge. It was founded in 1636, and received its name in 1638, in memory of John Harvard, a clergyman who died in that year and left to the

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college his library of 300 volumes and half his estate.

44. **Penn, William**, the son of Admiral Penn, was born at London, 1644, educated at Oxford, joined the Quakers in 1668, became a preacher and was often imprisoned. Having received the grant of Pennsylvania in 1681, he went to America in 1682, concluded a treaty with the Indians, and founded Philadelphia. He returned to England in 1684, but visited Pennsylvania again, 1699-1701. He died at Ruscombe, Berks, July 30th, 1718.

45. **Fox, George** (1624-1691), a shoemaker, born at Fenny Drayton, Leicestershire, in 1624, became an itinerant lay preacher and founded the Society of Friends.

tithes; the tenth part of the increase arising from the profits of land, the stock upon the land, and the personal industry of the inhabitants, allotted to the support of the clergy.

48. **Lord Clarendon**. Edward Hyde, first Earl, born at Dinton, Wiltshire, 1608, was the chief adviser of Charles I. during the civil war; was lord-chancellor from 1660-67; banished; wrote *History of the Rebellion*; died at Rouen, 1674.

Shaftesbury. Anthony Ashley Cooper, born in Dorsetshire 1621, died at Amsterdam 1683; a noted English statesman; supported Cromwell and Monk, was a member of the 'Cabal', and a prominent anti-Catholic agitator. He was tried for treason, acquitted, and fled to Holland.

John Locke (1632-1704), one of the most famous of English philosophers and thinkers. His chief work, *An Essay concerning Human Understanding*, marks the beginning of a new period in English philosophy. He was a friend and follower of the Earl of Shaftesbury.

51. **Amelia**; a small island off the north-eastern coast of Florida.

St. Augustine; a seaport in Florida near the Atlantic, is the oldest town

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in the United States, and a favourite winter resort.

51. **St. Simon**; a small island on the coast of Georgia, 60 miles south-west of Savannah.

John Wesley, born at Epworth, 1703; died at London, 1791. He was educated at Charterhouse School, and Christ Church, Oxford; went as a missionary to Georgia in 1735, and after his return founded the Methodist church.

54. **ignominious**; disgraceful.

57. **intermittent**; not continuous, but ceasing for a time, then going on again.

colonial expansion. By their chain of forts the French attempted to shut up the English colonists, twenty times more numerous than they, to the strip of land on the Atlantic sea-board.

59. **Culloden**; the battle at which the Jacobite rebels of the '45 were defeated.

Convention of Closter-Seven. This agreement was concluded at Zeven, a village in Hanover, 24 miles N.E. of Bremen, on September 8th, 1757.

to capitulate; to surrender on certain conditions.

60. **Lord Chesterfield**. Philip Dormer Stanhope, fourth Earl of Chesterfield, was born in London, 1694, and died in 1773. He was noted as a politician, orator, wit, writer, and man of fashion. He is chiefly remembered for his *Letters*.

succumbed; fell before, had to give in.

Crevelt; a city in the Rhine province of Prussia, 12 miles north-west of Düsseldorf.

Minden; a town on the Weser, in Westphalia, 35 miles south-west of Hanover.

61. **subsidy**; a sum paid by one government to another to enable it to meet the expenses of carrying on a war.

Anson (1697-1762). Made rear-admiral for his services in the *Centurion* during his famous voyage round the world, and given command of the Channel fleet, 1746, he gained a splendid vic-

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tory over the French off Cape Finisterre in 1747, for which he was made Baron Anson. He was first lord of the admiralty from 1751 to 1756, and from 1757 to his death.

62. *impeach*; accuse of neglect of duty.

63. *Ceuta*; a fortified town belonging to Spain on the coast of Africa, opposite to Gibraltar.

65. *got his commission*; became an ensign. The *commission* is the warrant or signed paper appointing a man an officer in the army. The grades are: ensign, lieutenant, captain, major, lieutenant-colonel.

claymore; large two-handed sword.

played havoc; wrought great destruction.

67. *brigadier-general*; the title of the officer in command of a brigade. Usually the office is only local and temporary, being assigned to the senior colonel of the regiments brigaded together.

68. *impregnable*; not to be taken.

70. *bombs*; hollow iron balls filled with explosive material. They are usually thrown from mortars, and are exploded by means of a fuse or tube, which is ignited by the discharge of the mortar.

74. *Anse du Toulon*. *Anse* means in geography a creek or shallow bay in which ships may take shelter. It is now called Wolfe's Cove.

The *boast of heraldry*, &c. All persons, however nobly born or powerful, however beautiful or rich, must die at length; the 'inevitable hour' of death awaits them. A stanza of the 'Elegy' of Thomas Gray.

79. *Oswego*; in New York, on Lake Ontario.

82. *Franklin* (1706-1790). He served his apprenticeship as a printer and in 1729 settled at Philadelphia as proprietor and editor of the *Pennsylvania Gazette*. An intensely energetic man of great natural ability, he distinguished himself as a scientist, philosopher, and writer. He became noted also as a politician and diplomatist.

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85. *subservient*; doing merely what they were told, and ready to obey the king's will in everything.

86. *armed neutrality*; i.e. they agreed among themselves to take no side in the war, but at the same time to resist by force any attempt to search their vessels.

87. *Lord Cornwallis* (1738-1805). He had won the battle of Brandywine in 1777, captured Philadelphia in 1778, defeated General Gates at Camden in 1780, and won the battle of Guildford in 1781. He went to India as governor-general in 1786, and defeated Tippu 1791-92. As commander-in-chief in Ireland he suppressed the rebellion of 1798.

89. *Chateauguay* (pronounced sha-tô-gay); a Canadian and U.S. river, which rises in the north-east of New York, flows through Quebec, and falls into the St. Lawrence a few miles above Montreal.

92. *Jean Baptiste*; the general name for the French Canadian, as *John Bull* is for the Englishman.

94. *Savanna*; wide grassy plain. *distempered*; half-crazy.

97. *immunity*; freedom from unjust taxes, oppressive laws, &c.

101. *Milton*, the great English poet (1608-1674). Was for a time secretary to the Commonwealth, and wrote the despatches which led to the suppression of the religious persecution in northern Italy.

Hampden; a country gentleman whose resistance to an unjust tax was one of the causes of the war against Charles I.

105. *flag-captain*; the captain of the vessel bearing the commanding officer of the fleet.

broadside; the discharge at one moment of all the guns on one side of a ship.

tactics; manœuvring, movements and arrangements made with the object of securing the most favourable conditions for battle.

109. *Vandals*; a Teutonic people who in

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the fifth century ravaged Gaul, Spain, North Africa, and, in 1455, Rome itself. They founded a kingdom in N. Africa, with Carthage for its capital. Their wanton destruction of marks of literature and of art is commemorated in the use of the word *vandalism*.

109. **Goths**; a Teutonic people who in the third century were settled in regions on the lower Danube. They were celebrated for the fierce attacks they made on the Roman Empire. Ultimately they broke up into two divisions, the Ostrogoths, or Eastern Goths, and the Visigoths, or Western. The former established a kingdom in Italy, and the latter established one in the south of France.

Knights of St. John; "The Hospitallers", a body of military monks, springing from an earlier community not military in character. After the capture of Jerusalem they defended Acre, and when driven from there, and afterwards from Cyprus, occupied and fortified the island of Rhodes. There they, a bulwark of Christendom, maintained themselves against the Turks for nearly two hundred years. Driven thence in 1522, after some wandering Charles V. assigned them the island of Malta. Malta was seized by Napoleon in 1798, and almost immediately afterwards wrested from him by the British, who retained it. The order still maintains an independent existence.

112. **effeminate**; weak and unmanly.

Volcondah; a town 38 miles N.W. of Trichinopoli, on the road between that city and Arcot.

114. **prestige**; great reputation founded on successes in the past.

118. **Nabob**; the native name of a governor or ruler of a province.

122. **maladministration**; bad management.

Macaulay. Thomas Babington Macaulay (1800-1859), great historian, afterwards Lord Macaulay. He wrote a number of historical essays, one of them on Clive.

126. **Francis**, Sir Philip (1740-1818). Went

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to India as one of the council in 1774; and after showing himself bitterly hostile to Hastings, left in 1780. He is believed by some to have been the author of the famous *Letters of Junius*, a series of letters which appeared in the *Public Advertiser* from 1769 to 1772 attacking the government.

126. **prejudiced against**; they already had an unfavourable opinion of him, and were ready to find fault with what he did.

127. **substantiate**; prove.

128. **judicial murder**; the being put to death under an unjust sentence.

Sepoys; native soldiers under British rule.

129. **equal to the occasion**; clever enough to overcome the difficulty.

131. **Edmund Burke** (1729-1797), brilliant Irish orator, writer, and statesman, famous for his writings on political subjects.

Charles James Fox (1749-1806), famous Whig statesman and wit.

Richard Brinsley Sheridan (1751-1816), dramatist and statesman. He was the author of the celebrated play *The School for Scandal*.

vizier; chief minister of the native sovereign.

140. **craven fear**. This occurs in Tennyson's poem "Hands all round"—

Pray God our greatness may not fail
Thro' craven fears of being great.

141. **Sir Charles Napier** (1782-1853). Did brilliant service during the Peninsular War under Moore and Wellington.

143. **The Lion of Mirpur**. Mir Sher Muhammad Khan Talpur, the ablest of the amirs, who gathered an army of 20,000 men and advanced against Sir Charles Napier. Napier with 5000 men met him at Dabba, and scattered his army. He afterwards gathered a force of some 8000, but was defeated by Colonel Jakob.

144. **Thomas Carlyle** (1795-1881), great prose writer and historian, author of *History of the French Revolution*, *Frederic the Great*, &c.

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145. **Dost Muhammad**. Succeeded in making himself ruler of Kabul about 1826. The British supported Shah Shuja, the exiled Durani prince, and Dost Muhammad was taken prisoner in 1839. He was restored in 1842. He died in 1863, and was succeeded by his son, Shere Ali.

Ranjit Singh. In 1800, at the age of twenty, he was made governor of Lahore by the Afghan amir. He organized the Sikhs, the sect to which he belonged, and firmly established himself over the country from Multan to Peshawar and from Scind to Kashmir. He was born in 1780 and died in 1839.

150. **senile**; old and worn out.

Moguls. Babar, the sixth in descent from Timur the Tatar, captured Delhi in 1526 and established the Muhammedan Tatar or Mogul Empire in India. His grandson Akbar completed the conquest of India. The empire began to break up in the beginning of the eighteenth century, after the death of Aurung-Zeb.

151. **Sir Henry Havelock** (1795-1857). Went to India in 1823, served in the first Burmese war, in the Afghan campaigns, in the Sikh war, and in Persia, and took command as major-general of the brigades at Allahabad in 1857.

152. **Sir Colin Campbell** (1792-1863), afterwards Lord Clyde. Served all through the Peninsular war, and became a popular hero, through his splendid services during the Crimean war.

153. **climate typical of its history**. The story of events in Burma shows just as striking contrasts as the weather of the country.

157. **an act of signal bravery**. Seeing at a distance two Sepoys carrying off a standard, he pursued them, overtook them as they were entering a village, and recovered the standard.

159. **English envoy**; Sir Louis Cavagnari.

160. **compromise**; an agreement by which each party to a dispute gives up something in order to arrive at a settlement.

165. **nefarious**; atrociously wicked.

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177. **patrolling**; keeping peace in, and generally guarding.

179. **reprimanded**; severely rebuked.

182. **trek**; a journey by ox-wagon, but it is used also in S. Africa for the migrations of bodies of farmers, with their families and property, from one part of the country to another.

183. **laager**; properly a camp. The name is also given to a temporary defensive camp formed by placing the heavy South African wagons close together in a circle.

200. **primitive**; old-fashioned.

financiers; men skilled in the use of large sums of money.

limited. A limited company is one in which the responsibility of each member of the company for its operations is proportionate to the share he has in it.

202. **physique** (pronounced fizeek'); bodily 'make' and power.

204. **suzerainty**; a French word meaning 'sovereignty'. It means the slight and often merely nominal authority exercised over an otherwise independent state by a superior power.

212. **Mahdi**; the great teacher whom the Muhammedans believe destined to appear and to convert the world to Muhammedanism. The name is applied in particular to Muhammed Ahmed, born 1843, died 1885, and his successors. He raised an insurrection in Egypt in 1883, and drove the Egyptians from the Soudan.

216. **Queros**, Pedro Fernandez de, a Portuguese navigator who commanded an exploring expedition in the Pacific 1604-6, was born probably about 1560, and died at Panama, 1614.

218. **Solander**, a Swedish botanist, who came to England about 1760.

Banks, Sir Joseph (1744-1820), a noted botanist. He left his library and herbarium to the nation.

239. **squatters**; stock-owners, men who rent from government at an almost nominal rent immense tracts of land, on which they pasture their flocks.

TABLE SHOWING HOW AND WHEN THE COLONIES AND DEPENDENCIES OF BRITAIN HAVE BEEN ACQUIRED.

NAME.	OBTAINED BY	DATE.
AFRICA—		
Ascension, - - - -	Annexation, - - -	1815
Basutoland, - - - -	Annexation, - - -	1871
Bechuanaland Protectorate, -	Proclamation, - -	1893
British Central Africa Protectorate,	Annexation, - - -	1889
Cape Colony, - - - -	Treaty cession, - -	1815
East Africa Protectorate, - -	Treaty cession, - -	1888
Gambia, - - - -	Treaty, - - -	1783
Gold Coast, - - - -	Conquest and cession, -	1663-1898
Lagos, - - - -	Annexation, - - -	1861
Mauritius, &c., - - - -	Conquest and cession, -	1810-1814
Natal, - - - -	Annexation, - - -	1843
Niger Coast Protectorate, - -	Cession, - - -	1884
Nigeria or Niger Co.'s Territories,	Cession, - - -	1888
Rhodesia, - - - -	Annexation, - - -	1888-91.
St. Helena, - - - -	Conquest, - - -	1673
Sierra Leone, - - - -	Transfer and treaty, -	1807
Uganda Protectorate, - - -	Annexation, - - -	1895
Walvisch Bay, - - - -	Occupation, - - -	1878
AMERICA.		
Bahamas, - - - -	Settlement, - - -	1629
Barbadoes, - - - -	Settlement, - - -	1605
Bermuda, - - - -	Settlement, - - -	1612
Canada Proper, - - - -	{ Conquest, - - -	1759-60
	{ Treaty cession, - -	
Columbia, &c., - - - -	Transfer to Crown, -	1858
Dominica, - - - -	Cession, - - -	1763
Falkland I. and South Georgia, -	Treaty cession, - -	1770
Fanning, Penrhyn, and Christmas I.,	Annexation, - - -	1888
Grenada, &c., - - - -	Treaty cession, - -	1763
Guiana, - - - -	Conquest and cession, -	1803-1814
Honduras, - - - -	Conquest, - - -	1798
Jamaica, - - - -	Conquest, - - -	1655
Manitoba, - - - -	Settlement, - - -	1813
Montserrat, &c., - - - -	Settlement, - - -	1632
New Brunswick, - - - -	Treaty cession, - -	1763
Newfoundland, - - - -	Treaty cession, - -	1713
N. W. Territories - - - -	Charter to Company, -	1670
Nova Scotia, - - - -	{ Conquest - - -	1627
	{ Treaty cession, - -	

NAME.	OBTAINED BY.	DATE.
Prince Edward Island, - -	Conquest, - -	1745, 1756-63
St. Christopher, Nevis, and Anguilla, - -	Settlement, - -	- 1623, '25, '59
St. Vincent, - -	Cession, - -	- 1763
Tobago, St. Lucia, &c. - -	Cession and conquest, - -	- 1763-1803
Trinidad, - -	Conquest, - -	- 1797

ASIA—

Aden and Socotra, - -	(Aden) Conquest, - -	1839
Ceylon, - -	Treaty cession, - -	1801
Cyprus, - -	Convention with Turkey, - -	1878
Hong-Kong, - -	Treaty cession, - -	1841
India (including Burmah), - -	Conquest, - -	- Begun 1757
Labuan, - -	Treaty cession, - -	1847
North Borneo, - -	Cession to Company, - -	1877
Straits Settlements, - -	Treaty cession, - -	- 1785-182
Wei-hai-wei, - -	Lease, - -	- 1898

AUSTRALASIA—

Fiji, - -	Cession from the Natives, - -	1874
Hervey Islands, - -	Cession, - -	1888
Kermadec Islands, - -	Cession, - -	1886
New Guinea, - -	Annexation, - -	1884
New South Wales, - -	Settlement, - -	1787
New Zealand, - -	Purchase, - -	1840
Queensland, - -	Settlement, - -	1824
South Australia, - -	Settlement, - -	1836
Tasmania, - -	Settlement, - -	1803
Victoria, - -	Settlement, - -	1834
Western Australia, - -	Settlement, - -	1826
Santa Cruz Islands, - -	Annexation, - -	1898

EUROPE—

Gibraltar, - -	Conquest, - -	1704
Malta, &c., - -	Treaty cession, - -	1814

DATES IN INDIAN HISTORY.

First Charter granted to the East India Company, -	Decr., 1600
First Factory established at Surat, - -	- 1611
Factory at Fort St. George or Madras founded, -	- 1639
Factory at Hoogli or Calcutta, - -	- 1642
Bombay ceded by the Portuguese, - -	- 1662
Calcutta purchased, - -	- 1698
Clive takes Arcot, - -	- 1751
Battle of Plassey, - -	- 1757

French defeated at Wandewash by Sir Eyre Coote,	-	1760
Warren Hastings governor of Bengal,	- - -	1772
Hyder Ali defeated at Porto Novo,	- - -	1781
War with Tippoo,	- - - - -	1790-92
Seringapatam stormed,	- - - - -	1799
Battle of Assaye,	- - - - -	1803
Burmese War,	- - - - -	1824-26
Suttees abolished,	- - - - -	1829
Afghan War,	- - - - -	1838-42
War in Scinde,	- - - - -	1843
First Sikh War,	- - - - -	1845
Second Sikh War,	- - - - -	1848
Punjab annexed,	- - - - -	1849
Burmese War,	- - - - -	1851
Oudh annexed,	- - - - -	1856
The Mutiny,	- - - - -	1857
The Government of the East Indian Company ceases,	-	1858
The Queen proclaimed Empress of India,	- - -	1876
Afghan War,	- - - - -	1878-80
Upper Burmah annexed,	- - - - -	1886
Relief and annexation of Chitral,	- - - - -	1895
Afridi Campaign,	- - - - -	1897-98

SOME STORY-BOOKS DEALING WITH COLONIAL HISTORY.

"Chapter I.", "Chapter II.", &c., refer to the corresponding chapters in this Reader.

CHAPTER I.: Gordon Stables, *Westward with Columbus*; Bird, *Cortez*; Manning, *Under the Southern Cross*.

CHAPTER II.: Charles Kingsley, *Westward Ho*; G. A. Henty, *Under Drake's Flag*; Edgar Pickering, *An Old-time Yarn*; J. S. Fletcher, *In the Days of Drake*; *Lives of Cavendish and Drake* (Blackie).

CHAPTER III.: E. S. Holt, *Clare Avery*.

CHAPTER IV.: R. M. Ballantyne, *The Norsemen in the West*.

CHAPTERS VI.-VIII.: Brydges, *Raleigh and Arabella Stewart*; Davis, *First Settlers in Virginia*, *Golden Hair*.

CHAPTER IX.: Hopkins, *Youth of the Old Dominion*, *Indian Princess*; Moseby, *Pocahontas*; Carruthers, *Cavaliers of Virginia*, *Knight of the Horseshoe*.

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